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ABSTRACT

This guide for inservice teacher education is designed for use by teacher groups in planning inservice. Short substantive narratives are followed by practical exercises to help teachers plans and develop inservice education, find resources, use outside assistance, and understand the potential functions of inservice education. The model presented is essentially an approach to planning, beginning with needs assessment and continuing through delivery of inservice. Emphasis is placed on the special conditions of rural schools and rural teachers, although the materials are generally useful to others. Topics covered include the following: (1) types of teacher inservice education; (2) needs assessment; (3) meeting and workshop format; (4) parent/community awareness of inservice teacher education; (5) release time models; (6) institutions of higher education and local education agency collaboration; (7) funding for inservice education; (8) school board awareness; (9) governance; (10) administrative support; (11) negotiations and inservice; (12) the role of the state department of education; (13) rural teacher centers. A bibliography for further reading follows each of the twelve sections of the manual. (JD)

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REPORTS:

IN SERVICE DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

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RESOURCE GUIDE FOR INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION
WASHINGTON WEST SCHOOL DISTRICT, VERMONT

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
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Resource Guide For Inservice Teacher Education

Washington West School District, Vermont

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One of four reports prepared for Teacher Corps by Arlington Public Schools, Virginia; Fordham University, New York; Washington West School District, Vermont; and Western Washington State College.

SP 011 534

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INTRODUCTION

Somewhat over a year ago Teacher Corps initiated a procedure to contract for the design of Inservice Development Processes which could be used by a total school faculty in a single school site. The end-products of the contracts, it was envisioned, would be useful for designing the inservice component of a Teacher Corps project. As well, the planning process itself seemed a weak link in overall strategies for developing inservice. The materials, therefore, might eventually find a broad audience among educators beyond the Teacher Corps family. In May, 1976, a Request for Proposals was issued. It described the background and issues to be covered as follows.

As a result of recent legislative changes, Teacher Corps has been directed to undertake the mission of "supporting demonstration projects for retraining experienced teachers and teacher aides serving in local educational agencies." Teacher Corps views this new authority as a reasonable extension of the Intern experience and requires that preservice and inservice be conceptualized as individual parts of a single continuum of professional development. Because of limits on funding, and because change theory indicates a preference for the strategy, Teacher Corps interns and teams are placed in a single school setting, and the regular staff of that school--teachers, aides,

and others (including community aides and interested parents)-- are considered to be the retraining population. A project must show how it will effect this total school staff through the supplemental services provided by interns, direct retraining programs, and community service efforts.

The word, retraining, is intended to denote activities which are directed at improving the person's performance of assigned responsibilities through the provision of additional cognitive, affective, experiential, supervisory/advisory or other learning inputs. Retraining may mean inservice, or the two may be considered as strategies with the context of professional development and/or continuing professional education. The terminology is less important than the concept which suggests (1) a continuing improvement of teacher (and other professional/paraprofessional) proficiency throughout the lifetime of the practitioner, (2) preparation for additional responsibilities within the role than those developed during preservice experiences, (3) remediation and continued improving (including updating) of teaching skills, and (4) consideration of roles and skills other than teaching (or classroom related) required for the successful practice of the profession.

The purposes and motivation for retraining may vary widely within the Teacher Corps project. Some schools may be concerned with challenging a particular problem or curriculum issue, e.g., improvement of discipline, upgrading of reading skills, faculty cooperation/communication for policy making or curriculum planning, etc. These needs may have been developed through faculty cooperative planning, directed by central office fiat, or

generated by changes in curriculum, social conditions, or community desires. The impetus may be either external or self-initiated by the person or the group. In any event, Teacher Corps is concerned with the total school faculty as the unit of instruction and change through the retraining process. Appropriate activities are described for each role group within the cooperating school, and necessary linkages are designed with preservice through the vehicle provided by the intern's program.

Within this group context, however, considerable attention is devoted to meeting the particular needs of each individual professional and/or paraprofessional. As Rubin suggests, "True artistry in teacher inservice education is a matter of fashioning expert performance out of the raw materials inherent in the teacher's nature. The sine qua non of healthy teacher inservice education is to enlarge rather than obliterate individual difference. The inservice process, therefore, while contributing to the quality and performance of the overall faculty and staff, must be designed to assist each individual member of the school group to learn what is needed to attain individual professional goals."

The foregoing considerations suggest that the inservice process must first evolve from an understanding of the purposes and limitations of preservice, the various levels of certification of faculty members (including the interest of some in achieving certification), and the relative years of experience of individual faculty persons. If total staff involvement is to be achieved, considerable attention must be directed towards

building a mutual interest among the total faculty while providing for the various individual motivations. Inservice in the past has been directed to more limited kinds of problems and issues than is suggested by this stance.

From another point of view, inservice education is one method for organizational change and development, but it is only one method and one part of an effective plan. Inservice, or professional upgrading, must be related to some sense of desired institutional change, either in terms of improved student learning or variation in staff utilization (perhaps the introduction of team teaching or ungrading, etc.). In order to develop an effective inservice program, the school must have established some objectives for change, examined the institutional limits on change in either program or structure, involved the community in its proposals for change (and as sources of information and expertise), and considered the types of support required to bring change about. Inservice then becomes an important concomitant of the improvement of education for children within the school.

The inservice effort involves a number of organizations beyond the school, even when the efforts at planning are school-based. Perhaps the major interest group is the teachers association or union which establishes professional conditions for participation. The school district must consider the implications of the retraining both in terms of retraining costs and additional salary requirements. Further implications for the district include the effects on the community of moving forward with one school, even experimentally, possible changed relationships and communications with the community served by the school (especially

new demands), limits on structural and/or organizational changes imposed by management styles or district policies, and relationships with other educational organizations.

The State Education Agency (SEA) role is particularly significant in the design and delivery of inservice. An SEA should have a plan governing appropriate inservice policies and procedures. Roy Edelfelt, in Rethinking Inservice Education (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1975) suggests that the basis and structure for development of a continuing education program within a state contains these essential elements:

1. A legal framework for organization
2. A conceptual framework
3. A design framework
4. A support framework

Within this context he goes on to suggest that "an examination of new proposals and plans for continuing education at the local district level might begin by addressing the decision-making processes, the relationship of the plan to program improvement, the intended participants, the adequacy of resources, and the extent of commitment to teacher education."

The university school of education has been the traditional supplier of inservice training, usually through course formats or the design/delivery of workshops to meet district developed needs. Teachers requiring certification have usually found the institute for higher education (IHE) the only source of state approved credits, even when the courses have not contributed directly to the teacher's perceived needs within the particular teaching context. Too often university study has led to other professional levels or

positions--training for up and out of the classroom--rather than reinforcing and expanding the teacher's skills for direct involvement with students. While the IHE retains an important role in the design and delivery of inservice, the focus of power for planning and designing programs is shifting to the local school district and to the organized profession.

Indeed, the significant element in the planning and delivery of inservice education is teacher power, emerging as the organizing element which may lead to a reconceptualization of the various institutional roles. Important issues related to teacher power include motivation for inservice, remuneration or other rewards (including inservice time scheduled during the regular professional day), and implications on staff roles, promotions, etc. Perhaps the least appreciated aspect of inservice education within the emerging field of concern is the importance of considering the teacher power issue and/or of facilitating teacher-controlled and directed inservice efforts.

This general background succinctly describes a number of issues which Teacher Corps seeks to challenge through this procurement. While the general focus remains on the improvement of a total faculty through inservice, in conjunction with the training of teacher-interns, this process must be considered in light of the communities and institutions which form the support and control systems impinging on the individual school, including the SEA and the IHE's.

At this juncture, considerable effort has been devoted to the study of the inservice problem by universities and professional

associations. A small body of theory and viable practices has emerged, and a rather considerable literature on the subject is readily available. In addition to theory, this study of inservice has dealt with problems, issues, various organization and power roles, recommended procedures for planning policy and/or programs, and the relationship of various innovations(e.g., teacher centers) to the development of inservice programs. The study has considered the roles of the SEA, IHE's, teacher agencies, and, to a lesser extent, the community. While some attention has been devoted to aides, paraprofessionals, and community volunteers, these persons have been less well considered than teachers.

In spite of this theoretical/research base, there are only limited strategies and operating principles for planning and delivering inservice education, especially programs which are teacher power based (i.e., designed, motivated, administered, and evaluated by teachers) and which are concerned with the total faculty of a school. The relationship of the SEA, IHE, community, and other organizations to this kind of approach remains unclear, and the problems of teacher motivation have been explicated but not dealt with. In this context, Teacher Corps project design groups, aimed at the demonstration of new and viable programs and processes, find themselves limited in resources for project planning and development, and a critical need emerges as guidelines for the project to use in the development of inservice programs within the cooperating school.

It was anticipated that each contractor would design a procedure and set of immediately usable materials which could be

distributed to interested single-school faculty groups and would deal with some or all of the following general questions related to the planning of inservice:

- . What are the purposes of inservice education?
- . What models and designs (power models, organizational, designs, delivery models, etc.) are useful for development within the total school context?
- . How do differences in understanding about the functions and purposes of inservice education by various concerned groups (SEA, IHE, school district, teachers association, community, students, etc.) affect the selection, design, implementation, or use of various models, procedures, etc.? (Consideration should be given to the differences in viewpoints of vested or non-vested interest groups.)
- . How would an inservice planning group use present theoretical bases, research, and extant prototypes in arriving at a situation-specific plan?
- . What functions can interns perform (or what roles can they play) in relation to the inservice aspects of the Teacher Corps project?
- . How can the LEA, or the school site, collaborate with the SEA, IHE, and other inservice resources, especially community resources?
- . What incentives are there within the local situation for inservice, and how can they be exploited?
- . How can the inservice be a true continuing staff development effort by considering the various levels of teacher experience and certification (despite a relatively flat career mode)?
- . How can the inservice consider not only teaching and classroom related behaviors but also the other roles required of teachers and other staff members, including professional group member, planner and policy maker, learner, citizen, and community member?

The Four Contracts

As a result of the procurement effort four contracts were awarded. Each contract represented a cooperative effort between a local education agency and an institution of higher education.

Other organizations, relevant to the inservice effort of the particular contractor, were included as partners in the planning. Usually, the teachers' organization was heavily involved in the design effort, and sometimes parents or students were included. All contractors were responsible for assuring the review of their materials and planning procedures by a total school faculty in a single school site, not so much for validation, as to insure that the materials spoke to faculty interests and needs in a reasonable way.

The contract period of performance was initially to be six months, but the work proved too complex for such a short period of time and was extended to ten months. During this time the contract directors met twice as a group to share ideas and to report progress. They were also able to attend a number of Teacher Corps events related to inservice planning. The experience of the contracts became a rich one both for the contractors and for Teacher Corps planning efforts.

Each contract proceeded to undertake the tasks in quite distinctly different directions, and this independent approach is reflected in these reports. Each of the four had been selected because the sites offered contrasting considerations of what were believed to be some key factors. For example, two contracts were awarded to Teacher Corps sites (Fordham and Western Washington). Although Arlington, Virginia, had just been funded, the district had no previous experience with the Corps, and Washington West (Vermont) had never participated in a project. Two sites were rural (Vermont and Western Washington); two were urban

(Fordham and Arlington). Two prime contractors were school districts (Arlington and Vermont), and two were institutions of higher education (Fordham and Western Washington). Teacher organizations were heavily involved in two projects: the UFT with Fordham and the NEA with Western Washington. While there was contact and occasionally assistance from the local and/or national organizations with the other two contracts, the relationship was less endemic to the success of the ventures.

Summary of Each Report

A brief summary of each contract's outcomes follows.

Arlington, Virginia Public Schools
426 No. Quincy St. Arlington, VA 22207

MODEL FOR SINGLE SCHOOL STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS OR PROGRAMS WITHIN A LARGE URBAN-SUBURBAN CENTRAL SYSTEM

The inservice planning guidelines, project management procedures, organizational structures for teacher and community involvement, and the initiation/implementation/incorporation processes suggested by the Arlington report and models for single school Teacher Corps use are based on the following community and system characteristics:

- large urban-suburban system with a wide range of central resources, individual school organizations, and diverse student/teacher/school needs.
- rapid changes in the nature of the student population in terms of language, mainstreaming, skills development and career preparation needs.
- active community interest and involvement in school policy and decision-making through an established standing and ad hoc committee structure and network.
- active teacher participation and involvement in parallel ad hoc and standing committees for decision-making and information sharing on the single school and system levels.

- the use of annual school plans and school board goals as planning tools for implementing system and school based staff development or curriculum development projects;
- a built-in staff development vehicle in each system-based and school-based program or area of specialization to deliver service to the single school site or classroom;
- recognition of a need to distinguish between school-generated and mandated goals and inservice and to face the realities of shrinking financial resources for supporting inservice activities.

In addition to examining the components of traditional formal or informal planned inservice activities at a single school site, the report and models emphasize a concept of continuing staff development which can emerge or evolve from active teacher participation and involvement in curriculum development, textbook selection, policy making, program planning, decision making, or classroom materials development activities on the single school and system levels. Groups who propose school based inservice/preservice Teacher Corps projects based on the Arlington teacher and community involvement process models have the following resources to use as guides for their individual single school planning purposes:

PART I: CENTRAL SYSTEM ANALYSIS

An analysis of a central system's organization and resources in terms of its impact on single school staff development programs and the impact of single school programs on the system level. Topics discussed include: annual school plans; school board goals; influence of reorganization; The Teachers' Council on Instruction; Teachers' Innovative Fund; surveys and resource files; the role of curriculum, media, resource, or program specialists and coordinators;

the influence of contact teachers, coordinating or advisory committees; impact of career, human relations, bilingual education, special education, humanities, volunteer and state or federal special programs on single school staff programs.

PART II: COMPONENT PAPERS

The Role of the Principal is based on observations and perceptions of ten principals, each representing a different level and form of school organization.

Decision-Making discusses a variety of decision-making processes, examines factors affecting levels of teacher participation, outlines a variety of roles and structures for decision-making, and places emphasis on the differences between mandated and self-generated goals and how they affect teacher decision-making.

Incentives discusses teacher participation in inservice planning and implementation and the organizational structure as an incentive and lists over 80 specific inservice incentives cited by system personnel as contributing to the success of school programs.

Collaboration addresses mutual needs, participants' roles, authority and governance, implementation, and evaluation needs and activities and describes actual experiences with state education agencies, institutions of higher education, civic and government agencies, community, business and volunteer groups in cooperative school based programs.

Problems lists and discusses a variety of inservice problems associated with time, money, apathy, interest, confidence, administrative support, staff leadership abilities and expertise, planning, organization, and management. Other sections deal with a

total school inservice program which failed from lack of teacher and community involvement in the planning, and 2) a Teacher Corps Project currently in operation within the school system.

PART III: HYPOTHETICAL MODELS

Hypothetical process models for initiating preservice/inservice Teacher Corps Projects at a single school site are designed for elementary and secondary school staff use based on the Training Complex and the Interdisciplinary Approach frameworks. Each model outlines processes for in-school proposal design and writing and guides for Community Steering groups to use during the planning consensus, commitment, decision-making and implementation stages of project design and staff acceptance procedures. Both models suggest using the library or Media Center as a base of operations, a strong project newspaper, ways to involve interns in all school and professional activities, ways to overcome "substitute syndrome," on site IHE coursework including a management/hands-on course for project staff and key school personnel and a method for holding a series of "Bounce" sessions to gain staff, administrative, and community support in advance of project implementation.

The elementary model, PRESERVICE/INSERVICE EDUCATION, is based on an open concept school organization characterized by active teacher involvement in a vertical and horizontal committee structure for staff and curriculum development purposes. The theme of the hypothetical project revolves around a total school effort to implement a new writing skills goal and a school-community "Planning for the Future" program. However, the model can be adapted to any school organization or for implementing other school-generated goals.

The secondary model, BASICS: LIFE AND SKILLS TEACHING, suggests ways to teach the four basic academic skills of reading, writing, computation, and study across discipline lines. Featured aspects of the project include buzz groups; "Four and One" and "Buddy" group needs assessment and material development activities; community skills enrichment days; and special intern study and skills development activities.

Most suggested processes and guidelines for implementing Teacher Corps projects contained in each model can be used at either the secondary or elementary levels and many of the proposed structures, workshop topics or inservice activities could be conducted by a school staff without outside assistance.

Fordham University
School of Education at Lincoln Center
New York, New York 10023

THE URBAN INSERVICE EDUCATION EXPERIENCE

The papers in this volume emerge from the experience of Fordham University and the Angelo Patri Intermediate School through their mutual efforts to establish an open-space school in a highly complex low-income neighborhood of inner city New York. No planning model for inservice, as such, emerges from the volume but the collection of papers prepare the reader to understand the process involved in developing programs under conditions of organizational change and the implementation of new programs and concepts of education. Close coordination with the union was maintained throughout the contract, and papers reflect a clear understanding of working with the teachers' organization as a collaborative partner. The approach is clearly aimed at big city, open space, collaborative

inservice experiences and would be of particular interest for persons working under these kinds of conditions. Others, however, may find valuable suggestions from the recording of experiences as one faculty developed rapport and self-initiated efforts. The following topics are covered by the study:

Acknowledgements

Introduction

Collaborating in Inservice Education: A teacher's perspective

Changing and Emerging Roles in Education: The role of the superintendent

Some Second Thoughts: A dean's reappraisal of the university's role in inservice education

School-Community Interaction

Open Education as an Alternative

Designing Inservice Education

Adapting College Courses for On-Site Teacher Education

Professional Staff Needs Assessment: A discrepancy analysis

School Design and the Educational Process

Lake Como to Frost Valley: An inservice "LifeShop"

Students' Role in Quality Education

The School-based Trainer of Teachers

Curriculum Development: Its goals and strategies

Incentives for Teachers in Inservice Education

The Supervisor as School Instructional Leader

Teacher Evaluation: A teacher unionist's view

The Urban Mission of the University

Contributors

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Moretown, Vermont

A RESOURCE GUIDE FOR INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

Materials consist of a manual organized in a loose-leaf notebook for use by teacher groups in planning inservice. Short substantive narratives are followed by practical do-it-yourself exercises which help teachers plan and develop inservice education, find resources, use outside assistance, and understand the many potential functions of inservice education. The model presented is essentially a straight-forward approach to planning beginning with

needs assessment and continuing through delivery of inservice. Use of informal models is stressed. Emphasis is placed on the special conditions of rural schools and rural teachers, although the materials are generally useful to others. No special inservice coordinator would be required to initiate activities within a small single school site. Topics covered include the following:

- Introduction
- Types of Teacher Inservice Education
- Needs Assessment-Introduction
 - Teacher Needs Assessment
 - Needs Assessment in a Curriculum Area
 - Schoolwide Needs Assessment Strategy
- Meeting and Workshop Format
- Incentives
- Parent/Community Awareness of Inservice Teacher Education
- Release Time Models
- LEA/IHE Collaboration
- Funding for Inservice Education
- School Board Awareness
- Governance
- Administrative Support
- Negotiations and Inservice
- The Role of the State Department of Education in Inservice
- Rural Teacher Centers
- General Appendix

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A GENERIC MODEL FOR INSERVICE EDUCATION

Included in the materials are a monograph, slide-tape introducing the planning model, and step-by-step procedures permitting a faculty to design its own inservice program following the steps in the model. Several scenarios are provided which are intended to provide concrete examples of effective, but different, inservice programs that could be developed under the rubric of the planning process.

The planning model is envisioned as taking place in a three-phase project. The model is presented schematically in Figure 1.

The initial phase is the determination of purpose for the local inservice program which involves two considerations: the definition of purpose and the analysis of limits. In the "Process Guide for the Initial Planning of an Inservice Program," which is one of the materials accompanying this monograph, there is a set of tasks to be used by a local group to accomplish the determination of purpose. This set of procedures will be referred to as Process A.

The second phase of the planning process is the design of the program elements. This part of the planning process is done by a representative committee which utilizes the information obtained in Process A. The committee proposes a plan for inservice based on the general definition and purpose. This phase is called Process B.

The third phase of the planning process is an evaluation scheme which is designed to be used by an external evaluator who reviews not only the agreed upon plan, but the planning process as well. This phase is referred to as Process C.

The generic model for inservice education and the planning process which utilizes the generic model attempt to provide a local team with a conceptual framework and a step-by-step procedure which will lead to a local, site-specific inservice education program. The variability of the programs from site to site will depend to a large degree on the local purposes which will determine the characteristics of the actual program. The value of the planning process will be judged in its ability to assist the local team in preparing a program which is internally consistent, that is, a program which

has clearly stated purposes, and procedures which are likely to achieve these purposes.

Some Generalizations

A number of general conclusions emerged from the reports and may be of interest for future inservice planning. First, teachers as central to the inservice process, will become involved in planning and developing inservice to meet their own needs, but they will reject "outside" programs "laid on" by districts or institutions of higher education. Each report, while more or less adaptable to other areas as it stands, nevertheless clearly reflects a particular set of political and organizational factors within the environment from which it was created. In other words, inservice planning is rather strongly dependent on the particular milieu of the planners. Although the contracts were selected to reflect factors considered to differentiate among sites, the materials produced by each contract have applicability in situations not defined by these factors. For example, the practical exercises developed by Vermont would be found useful in urban or suburban settings, as well. The role of the institution of higher education emerges as one of potential service to the school faculty through the vehicle of collaborative planning, rather than the traditional one of control of coursework and credits.

The conclusions of most interest concern the definitions and approaches to inservice education and its conditions. Each contractor defined and structured inservice differently. For example, Arlington developed a model-type program based on the use of enormous resources from the central office of a complex system, showing

how the individual school can plan for itself and make use of these resources. Western Washington developed careful linkages between the local education agency and the institution of higher education, thus reflecting a somewhat dependent relationship between these organizations as co-equal, collaborative partners. Fordham stressed the participation of the university and the professional organization in a school change plan, as the school was moving towards an open education environment, but required skilled assistance from the university. Vermont placed the local faculty squarely in the center of inservice planning, seeking to strengthen the ability of the teacher group to negotiate with both the local board and/or universities (or others) prepared to deliver services. The implications for the future of inservice in this respect are interesting. Many models of power brokerage appear able to lead to effective inservice planning. The key element, however, emerges as the individual faculty's ability to develop its own stance and to collaborate as an informed and co-equal partner in the planning process.

No development contract ever answers all needs and solves all problems, and so it is with these contracts. Several areas require additional attention. For example, the work on needs assessment for inservice was limited in each report. This condition could have reflected a feeling that the subject has been heavily stressed elsewhere and it was important to concentrate on other aspects of planning. But inservice needs were not sufficiently related to the needs of children within the participating school or based on a conceptualization of educational progress through the system. A "child study" approach to needs analysis and inservice design remains an important next step. Users of these reports may want to

explore this area.

It had been hoped initially that models of inservice planning would emerge from the contracts. A model in this respect was understood as a finite set of procedures or elements defining the area of concern, accompanied by requisite materials, which would permit a more or less step-by-step definition of planning activities, usable by a total faculty within a single school site. It was hoped that inservice design could be generalized into some number of comprehensive and replicable alternative formats. Indeed, such models of inservice planning did not emerge from the contracts, and it seems too early in the state of the art to have held such expectations. Each contract, however, did analyze and present a process and materials which can be adapted to any single school site although the nature of the model will be governed by the design of the adaptation.

Readers of these reports, therefore, will find guidelines, materials, suggestions for procedures, and various sets of steps for planning inservice, but they will not find a model per se of the inservice process. The reports will provide support for local site planning and initiative. Specific materials or exercises may be selected to fit the context of a school initiated inservice plan based on faculty established needs and objectives. From these perspectives, the reports should prove to be extremely useful. A cross reference subject guide follows this introduction.

A follow-up activity is planned for the Inservice Development Process project. Another Request for Proposals is being prepared and will be distributed to X, XI, and XII cycle Teacher Corps sites. The purpose of this second procurement will be to encourage adaptations of the procedures and materials in these reports, to permit

analysis of the inservice planning process, and to develop principles of organizational development related to inservice planning.

Related Inservice Planning Efforts*

There is a healthy proliferation of broad-based activities taking place around the nation related to inservice education -- examinations of the state of the art, needs, planning processes, criteria for programs, alternative delivery systems, networking, to name only a few. A fair summary of such activities would require time and space not appropriate to this publication. What follows is a sampling for the reader of some of the major efforts that are considering crucial problems and challenges facing us in inservice education.

- . Current Teacher Corps projects are focusing major energies on demonstrating programs for retraining experienced educational personnel at their school sites. 117 projects across the country are individually responding to the new Teacher Corps retraining and demonstration mandates as well as integrating preservice preparation into collaborative programs that meet locally assessed needs. Each project experience as well as the collective experiences of regional and national networks will contribute a large number of tested approaches and data to the state of the art as well as offer new directions for the future.
- . In addition to local project and regular regional network efforts, Teacher Corps is supporting a number of special projects in the area of inservice education. This publication is a presentation of final reports from one of those projects. A request for proposals to implement and evaluate the four inservice development processes presented herein is currently in process as a second phase to this effort.
- . The Far West Teacher Corps network is presently coordinating a series of activities in the area of

* This section was prepared by Bambi Olmsted

retraining teachers. A conference in 1975 resulted in a major publication, Rethinking Inservice Education,¹ that has been distributed nationally. The network has produced a pamphlet presenting 29 criteria for examining local inservice programs.² That and a forthcoming book entitled, Inservice Education: Examples of Criteria and Local Programs, integrate the results of a work conference held for member projects and professional organization representatives in 1976.

- A third effort sponsored by Teacher Corps is the National Council of States on Inservice Education. The Council was created to provide a way for states to examine, discuss and disseminate information about inservice goals, training materials, and retraining strategies. There are presently 17 states involved in the project: Arizona, California, Colorado, Florida, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Texas, Utah, Vermont, and Washington. Liaison representatives from AACTE, AASA, APT, ATE, NEA, and Teacher Corps Networks are also involved with the discussions and committee meetings. The Council conducts leadership training activities for its member states, publishes a monthly newsletter entitled INSERVICE, will publish monographs on inservice education issues that are of interest to State education agencies, and has conducted a national conference on State Action for Inservice Education, the proceedings of which will be available shortly.³

- Teacher Corps in cooperation with the National Center for Educational Statistics has sponsored a major study on Inservice Teacher Education (ISTE) coordinated by Bruce Joyce and Lucy Peck. The primary purposes of the study have been to determine data needs in the area which could be used as a base for successive studies and to conceptualize ISTE in such a way that Teacher Corps and the broader educational community can more effectively guide its activities. Data has been gathered from existing literature, "experts," and participating role groups in ISTE via questionnaires, interviews and literature searches. Five monographs currently are available on I. Issues to Face, II. Interviews: Perceptions of Professionals and Policy Makers, III. The Literature on ISTE: An Analytic Review, IV. Creative Authority and Collaboration, and V. Cultural Pluralism and Social Change.⁴ As a second phase to the study, teachers

¹ Rethinking Inservice Education - Roy A. Edelfelt, Margo Johnson, National Education Association 1975

² Inservice Education: Criteria for Local Programs - Roy A. Edelfelt, Far West Teacher Corps Network 1976

³ From the National Dissemination Center at Syracuse University

⁴ Ibid

in Teacher Corps project schools will be asked to respond to a questionnaire on their needs and interests in inservice education. That is scheduled for fall 1977.

- The five year experience of the USOE Urban/Rural School Development Program provides considerable data on the effects of formal joint (parity) efforts between schools and committees toward training educational personnel serving children in low income communities. This program was a bold and early step forward in inservice educational personnel development. The first phase of the program (23 sites) is reported by James Terry and Robert Hess in a January 1975 publication entitled The Urban/Rural School Development Program: An Examination of a Federal Model for Achieving Parity Between Schools and Communities.⁵
- The National Institute of Education is supporting a number of efforts that include inservice education components in an overall program of utilization of research and development. As one of those efforts the National Education Association is working with 60 local school districts in 12 states to help teachers make effective use of R&D based inservice training materials. A national clearinghouse of information on materials (with an "800" telephone number) and corresponding system of state facilitators is in the initial stages of operation linking classroom teachers and their self-determined needs to usable research based training products.
- The Group on School Capacity for Problem Solving in NIE supports a wide variety of projects many of which are focused on inservice training within their local contexts. Examples of these projects are the Minneapolis Teacher Center Extension Project which is working with a number of public schools and the University of Minnesota in staff development, An Exchange for and about Teachers' Centers which has organized an informal support network of teachers' centers across the country, and Extending School Capacity for Self Support of Open Education which supports N.Y. City open education teachers' staff development through an advisory approach and a workshop center. Each of these projects is exploring alternative modes of inservice education by developing local problem solving capacity.

Some additional resources of potential interest to the reader, each the product of a set of activities exploring aspects of inservice education, include the following:

⁵ Available from the School of Education, Stanford University.

National Symposium: Critical Issues in Teacher Inservice Education

Louis Rubin
University of Illinois
1975

Teachers Designed Reform in Inservice Education

Roy A. Edelfelt
Margo Johnson
January 1977 (final report to grant from
National Center for Educational Research
and Development, USOE)

Current Perspectives and Evolving Trends in Inservice Education
in the United States

U.S./OECD Forum of Education
Organization Leaders, July 1976 prepared by
Kenneth R. Howey

Curriculum Development Through Inservice Education(forthcoming)

Association of Teacher Educators

Visions, Prototypes and Models in Teachers' Professional Growth
(forthcoming)

National Council of States on Inservice
Education prepared by Louis Rubin

In Appreciation

The success of this contract activity depended on the efforts of a great many persons. The contractors and their staffs expended enormous effort in planning, studying, and reporting inservice activities and developing materials to reflect their approaches to some difficult problems in the field. The leadership and support provided by Bill Smith and Jim Steffensen facilitated the design and monitoring of the project and, indeed, made working on it a pleasure. Ellen Balko, the contracts officer, was especially helpful with the business of management of this complex activity.

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At the completion of the reports a panel of persons was assembled to review the contracts as a whole and to recommend probable uses of the end-products and possible next steps. The efforts of the following persons in this respect are appreciated: Gwendolyn Broyles, Jerome Clark, Kenneth Howey, Elaine Long, Dave Marsh, Anna Nuernberger, and Bambi Olmsted.

Walt Le Baron
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May 1977

A Cross Reference to Major Topics Covered by the Inservice Development Process Reports
Prepared by Dave Marsh

TOPICS	ARLINGTON PUBLIC SCHOOLS	FORDHAM UNIVERSITY	WESTERN WASHINGTON STATE COLLEGE	WASHINGTON WEST PUBLIC SCHOOLS
I. General Analysis of Inservice (definitions, overviewing rationale, types, historical context)	Introduction	1-8, 71-75	<u>GM</u> 4-6*, 10-11, 13-15	
II. Planning Models	133-231, (see especially the PIE Training Complex)		<u>GM</u> 4-55 <u>IB</u> whole <u>PG</u> whole	223-267 (note: emphasis on rural teacher centers).
III. Components of Planning Models				
<u>Governance/Collaboration</u> (decision making)	43-52, 59-60, 64-75, 93-106, 142-162	9-22, 33-46	<u>GM</u> 11-17 <u>PG</u> 14-15	180-183, 200-212
Funding/Resources	107		<u>GM</u> 17-18 <u>PG</u> 21-22	118-147
including roles for:				
- teachers		220-238	<u>GM</u> 15-17 <u>PG</u> 19-20	
- teacher organizations	53	11-14		
- principals	42-65, 112-114, 219	205-219		
- school district administration	220	23-32		171-175, 184-185, 189-199
- school boards	54			170-179
- state departments		17-18		136-137, 213-222
- IHE's	101	15-17, 33-46, 82-102, 239-249		96-117, 130
- community	103-105, 171	47-59	GM 23-24	72-81

TOPIC	ARLINGTON PUBLIC SCHOOLS	FORDHAM UNIVERSITY	WESTERN WASHINGTON STATE COLLEGE	WASHINGTON WEST PUBLIC SCHOOLS
<u>Establishing Purpose</u>				22-52
(including:				
-analyzing organizational and political situations	1-40, 64-75, 133-174	60-70, 123-133 149-160	GM 9-20 PG 8-13, 16-18	12-21, 53-63, 186-188
-relating ISTE to conception of teaching, schooling				5-7, 82-90
				64-71
<u>Conducting Needs Assessment/Defining Content</u>		103-122	GM 21-25	91-95
<u>Defining Instructional Approaches</u>	Part IV (under separate cover)	75-78, 82-106, 161-174, 175- 191	GM 25-26 PG 25-26	148-169
<u>Staffing</u> (including use of local talent)		51-52, 161-174	GM 26-27	
<u>Incentives, rewards for training</u>	56-58, 76-92, 166-170	192-204	GM 18-19 PG 23-24	
<u>Released Time</u>	106-107			
<u>Training Materials</u>	Part IV (under separate cover)			
<u>Evaluation and Monitoring</u>		220-238	GM 28-29, 44-59	
IV. Case Studies				
<u>Planning/Conducting ISTE</u>	114-131, 133-231	entire monograph	GM 31-43	
			GM - Generic Model Monograph	
			IB - Informational Booklet	
			PG - Planning An Inservice Program: A Process Guide	

RESOURCE GUIDE FOR INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

This publication was prepared pursuant to a contract from the United States Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare. The opinions expressed herein do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of the United States Office of Education and no official endorsement by the United States Office of Education should be inferred.

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In the production of this guide the talents and efforts of the following individuals were herculean: Faith Dunne edited the manuscript, Renate Bieling typed the final product, Susan Phelps and Judy Bosson illustrated, and Sarah Molholm designed the cover.

NOTICE TO READERS

This resource guide is the result of over eight months of research, discussion, and writing by a group of teachers and administrators in the Washington West School District, Waterbury, Vermont. The project was completed under a contract from the United States Office of Education. The primary purpose of this document is to assist single schools or school districts in the planning, implementation, and operation of quality inservice teacher education programs.

It is not intended that individuals using the materials contained in the guide read or use all sections. The book is intentionally designed and organized so that individual sections may be removed or utilized in isolation from other sections. It is, however, advisable for any potential user of the materials to read the introductory section before proceeding to other sections. Particularly important in the use of this guide is an understanding of its purpose and intent which are outlined in the introductory section.

A significant portion of the materials contained herein have been acquired through extensive research and review of inservice literature. The best and most germane materials have been abstracted, included in their entirety, or bibliographically noted. We hope you enjoy our efforts and find them useful in your planning.

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We believe that every teacher has an inherent right to an opportunity for professional growth and change--a right inseparable from the responsibility to make this continuing process of education serve the community.

The process of growth and change should be consistent with a teacher's needs, values, and philosophy of education. It should also be consistent with the needs, values, and philosophy of the community. This concept requires mutual support and communication among school administrators, community members, teachers and students.

-The Teacher Review Team-

INTRODUCTION

The individual teacher is the essential component in the educational process. Improvement of educational quality will always depend largely upon the quality of teachers. Experienced, first-rate teachers are the key to future educational development. Therefore, teacher inservice education is a crucial area of concern if we are to encourage growth in our educational system.

Inservice education has advanced very little toward achieving its potential. The research on inservice education is voluminous. However, it is usually descriptive in nature and narrow in scope. There are few comprehensive reviews and generally applicable programs in inservice education. It is our intent to suggest a usable program that can be adapted to a variety of settings, including rural schools.

Rural areas have many common characteristics -- widely dispersed populations, general lack of varied opportunities, considerable external control and influence (see Appendix for discussion of rural America). Their most common characteristic, however, is a lack of common characteristics -- their diversity. Each community is unique. And rural communities are here to stay. America and the rest of the world depend on them for sustenance and for recreation.

Despite the importance of rural America, its needs have often been neglected -- including its educational needs. Each rural community is unique, and demands teachers who can respond to its special challenges. The rural teacher must

first of all be adaptable, and able to handle considerable autonomy and responsibility. Rural teachers should be community-oriented and concerned enough about cultural development to bring outside opportunities into the area. The best rural teachers are generalists -- jacks-of-all-trades -- problem solvers.

Since the educational needs of rural teachers are so diverse, they require some reform in the structure, if not the substance of inservice programs. The independent study approach is best suited to the autonomous teaching style of the rural professional. Programs should be flexibly designed for use by individuals or for small group activities. Guidelines for establishing inservice programs should encourage each school district to design and implement its own plan.

In this manual, we suggest guidelines for a sound inservice program tailored to the needs of teachers in a selected school. The manual will help teachers to evaluate their school's position on inservice education. It will also suggest ways that the school's position can be used as a basis for developing effective programs. In some cases the manual guidelines will be inapplicable and should be recognized as such.

In this manual, we address the matter of teacher inservice education issue by issue; thus, we risk the danger of overlooking the interrelationships between the issues. However, we increase the total utility of the manual by allowing each issue to be treated separately. Some issues may apply to a particular school setting, others may not. Each group can choose the parts relevant to its needs.

The manual presents each issue in a similar format. First, we discuss the reason for the inclusion of each issue and its importance in inservice education. Second, we offer activities (a game, simulation, role play, etc.) to initiate individual thinking and generate group discussion on that issue. Third, the issue is placed in the real context of each school; teachers ask themselves, "What can we do in this area?" Often, a case study exercise is provided to help answer this question. Last, there are included suggested methods, tools, or processes that might help professionals address a particular inservice issue.

Our philosophy of inservice education is based on the notion of "teacher power" as it is espoused by the Teacher Corps. Teachers are the principal clients of inservice education, and ought therefore to be the designers of inservice programs. As Louis Rubin points out, "the improvement of schooling can be achieved only through the people who operate the schools."

Teaching is not only a job -- it is also one of the helping professions. It deals with people and is a very human occupation. Human tasks must allow for flexibility, adaptability, and differentiation. Therefore, the programs for teacher inservice must permit great individualization.

Learning is a basic human function, and teachers as continuous learners must be provided with opportunities for growth. Expanded inservice activities must be viewed as both a necessary and a legitimate means of educational improvement. Legitimate professional growth will increase effectiveness in the classroom. And, as awareness of the value of legitimate inservice programs spreads, community support will rise.

A teacher's right to improved professional growth must not be exercised at the expense of their responsibilities. Although inservice education is largely a teacher's own responsibility, focus must then be turned to student needs insuring a balanced approach to total educational needs. Teachers operate within a community framework and inservice programs must take that context into account. Nor should teachers rely entirely upon themselves for their continuing education. They must remain open and receptive to outside ideas and perspectives if their inservice education is to be relevant and realistic.

Knowledge of effective teaching techniques must still be a part of inservice programs but teacher competence comes from combining teaching skills, knowledge of the learning process and a sincere desire to help children.

Teaching is a broadening, legitimate, human task which carries a great potential for social reconstruction. A new emphasis on teachers' rights and responsibilities for their own continuing education is the necessary thrust toward realizing this potential.

INSERVICE COORDINATOR

As the emphasis of teacher education continues to shift from pre-service to inservice, the inservice coordinator becomes a potentially more valuable person. Schools and school districts will become increasingly convinced of the need to fill this role. Ideally, there would be a full-time inservice coordinator. However, in rural schools, the inservice coordinator is likely to add that job to other duties. The coordinator might be a principal, a superintendent, a university consultant, a teacher center director, a teaching principal, or an experienced teacher. The responsibilities of an inservice coordinator might also be shared by more than one person.

The successful coordinator should have certain characteristics and qualifications. A good inservice coordinator should have a strong commitment to teacher inservice education, and the ability to clearly see and continually re-evaluate the need for inservice. They are committed to teacher support, especially for beginning teachers. First-rate coordinators are teacher advocates and negotiators for teacher interests and needs. Most important, they must be committed to the welfare of the student through teacher inservice. Through a concern for student needs, coordinators can be assured that inservice efforts will be "on target."

An inservice coordinator should be actively engaged in inservice activities. Willingness to go into the classroom and talk with teachers and students is essential. The good coordinator is an invaluable on-the-spot resource for teacher training on a preservice-inservice continuum.

Inservice coordinators must be effective time managers. They must have enough time to spend on the inservice responsibilities, but, in addition, they should be effective planners and organizers. Good coordinators are effective initiators as well as a conscientious follow-up people; they use their own and teachers' time actively and productively.

Good inservice coordinators need to be effective communicators. They are receptive, sensitive counselors for teachers. But, they should also need to be able to be directive when necessary. Coordinators need to be able to organize a mutual feedback and support system among teachers and to promote understanding between teachers and administrators. A wide range of contacts with resource people are beneficial to inservice coordinators, as is familiarity with the existing teacher education programs.

Inservice coordinators must have credibility among students, teachers, and administrators. They must speak for the rights of teachers while pointing out educators' responsibilities. Inservice coordinators must be able to show educational effectiveness if inservice programs are to receive necessary support from the community.

Inservice coordinators must be realistic. There is no substitute for classroom experience; coordinators must have been teachers at some time in their careers. They must be able to identify both school needs and individual teacher needs and plan effective programs within that combined context. Good coordinators are process and product oriented; they are competent decision makers. Most important, inservice coordinators should be able to strike a balance between theory and practice so that inservice programs have a philosophical direction

as well as application in the everyday classroom.

These criteria for a successful inservice coordinator are not easy to evaluate. Nor do many real people have all these traits. But, they are all important qualities to consider and the coordinator should be selected to meet as many as possible. Selection should be made by people who will be working with the inservice coordinator --- this means especially teachers.

The inservice coordinator serves a crucial function. It requires a very special person; committed, involved, action-oriented, friendly, honest, perceptive, and knowledgeable. It is a leadership role and one that must be filled if we are to improve the quality of education in our schools through inservice education.

Note: Many of the activities and exercises in this manual are designed for the inservice coordinator, who will direct groups of teachers, administrators, or combined groups. The coordinator should become familiar with those exercises and procedures, selecting those that would be most helpful in addressing important, local, inservice issues.

OVERALL INTRODUCTION -- BIBLIOGRAPHY

Note: A substantial number of the bibliographical notations found in this document have been extracted from An Annotated Bibliography On In-service Education prepared by the staff of the National Council of States on Inservice Education, Syracuse University School of Education.

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TYPES OF TEACHER INSERVICE EDUCATION

Inservice education is becoming a venture into which educational resources ---time, money, energy--- are increasingly being channeled. This section is designed to expand awareness of the virtually limitless possibilities for applying these resources to the personal and professional growth of teachers. There are hundreds of inservice methods and activities by which teachers' needs can be met; the inservice coordinator's job is to identify specific ways in which individual teaching and learning styles can be satisfied.

In summary, the purposes of this section are:

1. To expand peoples' concept of different kinds of inservice.
2. To increase awareness that teachers are continuous learners.
3. To recognize that individual learning styles can be best met by different methods and/or activities.
4. To clarify various forms of inservice activities that support teachers' personal and professional growth.



TYPES OF TEACHER INSERVICE EDUCATION

ACTIVITY

PURPOSE: The purpose of this activity is to expand a person's awareness of the kinds of inservice activities available to teachers. The activity will also help teachers and administrators consider what kinds of inservice experiences would be most appropriate for approaching teacher problems in their schools.

PROCEDURE: PART I

This activity should be used with a small (5-12) group of teachers, administrators, board members, or other people concerned with teacher inservice education.

Each member of the group should list, in writing, five activities in which a teacher could participate which would contribute to professional development. This might include courses, teacher visits to other classrooms, travel, etc.

After each person completes a list, the group shares and discusses ideas and a group consensus list is recorded. Any additional ideas can be included in the list at this time. This will help the group come to some form of agreement on what constitutes valid inservice activities.

PROCEDURE: PART II

Using the following list of possible teacher problems, each member of the group will list any teacher inservice activities that would help approach each particular problem. (If a group has trouble thinking of relevant inservice activities, it may refer to the Appendix of this section.) FOR EXAMPLE: 1. If I had difficulty keeping track of student progress I would (take a workshop/take a course/visit another classroom/do some reading.)

1. If I had difficulty keeping track of student progress I would _____

2. If I had difficulty planning units I would _____

3. If I had trouble arranging and organizing my classroom (furniture, bulletin boards, etc.) I would _____

4. If I had trouble with discipline or classroom management I would _____

5. If I had trouble making the curriculum relevant and exciting for my students I would _____
6. If I were feeling stagnant and bored with my job I would _____
7. If I felt I wanted to expand my professional career while still teaching I would _____
8. If I wanted to find out more about other classrooms I would _____
9. If I didn't feel satisfied with my parent/community - school relationships I would _____
10. If I didn't feel satisfied with staff relationships with administration or school board members I would _____

TYPES OF TEACHER INSERVICE EDUCATION

EXERCISE

PURPOSE: After completing the previous two-part activity, the group of teachers and administrators will direct its thinking toward its own school situation. The purpose of this activity is to have the group (1) evaluate what kinds of teacher inservice opportunities are currently available in its school (2) decide whether these opportunities need to be expanded or reduced, and (3) have each member of the group list three (3) teacher inservice activities he/she would like to see offered in the next year(s).

PROCEDURE: PART I. EVALUATION

Do the following worksheet as a group. Check one (1) column for each different inservice activity.

TYPES OF TEACHER INSERVICE EDUCATION

WORKSHEET

In our school we participate in these inservice activities. . . .

Types of Inservice Activities	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
Courses (University)				
Institutes				
Conferences				
Workshops				
Staff Meetings				
Committee Work				
Professional Reading				
Guest Representatives - e.g. publishers, college resource people, etc.				
Field Trips				
Travel				
Work Experience				
Teacher Exchanges				
Teacher Visits				
Research				
Professional Writing				
Professional Association Work				
Community Work				
Team Teaching				

TYPES OF TEACHER INSERVICE EDUCATION

CASE STUDY EXERCISE

PROCEDURE:

PART II. DISCUSSION

The group will discuss the results of the previous exercise. The discussion may include possible areas of expansion or elimination of activities, so as to establish a well-balanced program of inservice activities tailored to the group's own school situation.

PART III. LISTING

As a follow-up activity, each member of the group should list, in writing, three (3) teacher inservice activities which should be made available. Members of the group would then share ideas.

The inservice coordinator will record the group concerns in order to help formulate an applicable inservice activities program.

TYPES OF TEACHER INSERVICE EDUCATION

DEFINITIONS

1. Cultural Experiences: Experiences by which one gains new knowledge of a way of life different from one's own. Can also be experiences in the arts (drama, music, art).
2. Committee Work: Groups of people meeting on a regular basis for a specific purpose.
3. Community Work: Providing services to parents and others such as teaching a course, conducting a workshop, sharing experiences, running recreational programs, participating in theater groups, or setting up volunteer or aide programs.
4. Institutes: One or more weeks of intensive study. Deals entirely with one subject for specific groups or people with common interests; for example: Junior high level teachers, administrators, or remedial reading teachers. Usually held on location at IHE. Cost incurred by school board, person attending institute, or organization holding institute.
5. Courses: Offered by institution of higher education (IHE). Can be given at institutions of higher education, area schools, or teacher center. Can be given by certified college personnel (professors) or their agents (e.g. consulting teachers). Cost incurred by school board, person taking course, or teacher center.
6. Field Trips: Learning experiences outside school for small or large group. Involves pre-planning, stated expectations, post-trip evaluation.
7. Guest Representatives: Person or persons (e.g. publishers, resource people) who come into a school to address faculty on a particular subject, product or experience.
8. Conferences: Usually not as intensive as an institute. Usually given on one broad topic. Little or no cost involved.
9. Professional Association Work: Involvement in organization such as NEA or National Council of Teachers of English to increase professionalism in teaching.
10. Professional Reading: Books, periodicals, pamphlets, handouts, etc. dealing with subjects of professional interest.
11. Professional Writing: Writing articles, curriculum units, critiques, etc. for publication.

12. Research: Reviewing writings or gathering systematic original data on one or many subjects. Information can be gathered from local colleges, universities, or personal study, libraries, resource people or ERIC system.
13. Staff Meeting: Involves teaching or total staff, deals with in-school or in-district needs. Provides time to design various parts of the curriculum, to hear guest speakers, to disseminate information, time, etc.
14. Teacher Exchanges: Teachers trading professional assignments on a short or long term basis to enhance the experiences of each.
15. Teacher Visits: Teacher or teachers leaving classroom in order to observe in another school or classroom and gain new ideas.
16. Team Teaching: Interaction among two or more teachers, including shared responsibility for curriculum planning, interchange of talents and expertise, and continuing evaluation of team's efforts.
17. Travel: Same as a field trip, but usually for an extended length of time.
18. Work Experience: On-site participation in work relating to area or subject of professional interest. Can be volunteer or paid job.

TYPES OF INSERVICE AND CONTEXTS

	On-the-job (part of job)	Job Related (addition to job)	Certification Related	Degree Related	(organization) Professional Orientation	Self- Directed
Courses (University)		X	X	X		
Institutes		X	X	X		
Conferences		X	X		X	X
Workshops		X	X			X
Staff Meetings	X					
Committee Work	X	X	X			
Professional Reading	X	X		X		X
Guest Representatives	X	X				X
Field Trips		X				X
Travel		X				X
Work Experience	X					
Teacher Exchanges	X	X				
Teacher Visits	X	X				
Research		X		X		X
Professional Writing		X				X
Professional Association work		X			X	
Cultural Experiences		X				X
Community Work		X				X
Team Teaching	X					

Borg, Walter R., et al. The minicourse: A microteaching approach to teacher education. Beverly Hills, California: Macmillan Educational Services, 1970

Stemnock, Suzanne K. Professional growth credit for educational travel (ERS Circular No. 2). Washington, D.C.: Educational Research Service, 1971 (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 049 197)

Vanderpool, J. Alden. Relationships between certification and "inservice" education. In R. A. Edefelt and M. Johnson (Eds.), Rethinking inservice education. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1975

NEEDS ASSESSMENT

A cost-effective program of inservice education is based on a carefully planned and executed needs assessment. Inservice research indicates that programs responsive to real, identified needs and linked to a school development plan are more effective than programs based on general assumptions about what the school ought to have.

This section offers a variety of methods of conducting needs assessment, to identify school-wide needs, curriculum needs, and teacher needs.

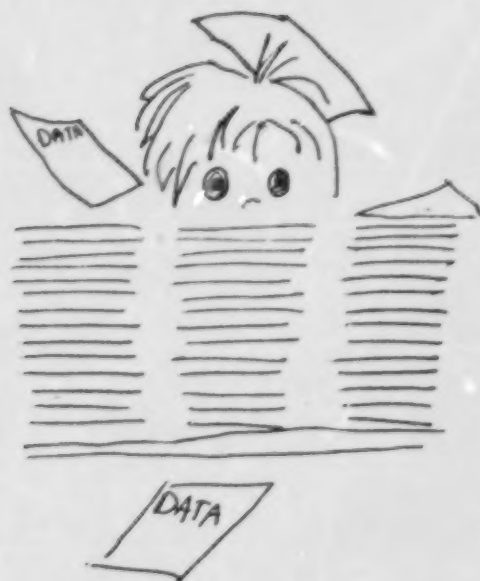
In summary, the goals of this section are:

1. To help a school determine needs based on data, not just assumptions, so that cost effective inservice programs can be designed.
2. To show that inservice programs responsive to real needs are more effective than programs which do not take needs into account.
3. To offer alternative methods of needs assessment.

NEEDS ASSESSMENT

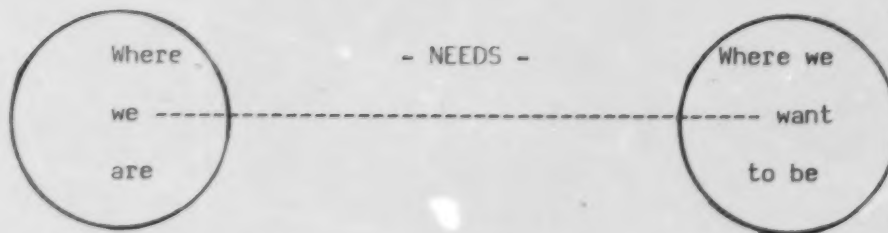
INTRODUCTION

1. WHAT IS IT?



Needs Assessment is a process of collecting data on which to base decisions.

Essentially, Needs Assessment compares what exists to an ideal. Needs are the components necessary to get us from where we are to where we want to be.



2. WHY DO IT?



Everyone has an idea of what is needed. But what really is?

A needs assessment process will help identify the real needs of an educational community, not just the needs of a few individuals. Data allows for effective planning toward a mutual goal.

3. WHAT TYPE OF NEEDS ASSESSMENT SHOULD WE DO?

Most educational needs fall into one of three broad areas - individual staff needs, curriculum needs and school-wide needs.



4. HOW DOES NEEDS ASSESSMENT RELATE TO INSERVICE?



Inservice training is an integral part of an educational program. Effective professional growth of individual staff members leads to constructive change in all areas of the school. Through needs assessment one can make sound decisions about in-service programs that will have impact on the school, the curriculum, and the individual teacher. The results of a needs assessment should indicate the direction for inservice education.

5. HOW DO WE DO A NEEDS ASSESSMENT?



There are various methods of collecting data. Many models can be easily adapted for the kind of assessment desired. Here are examples of three (3) assessment areas: individual staff needs, curriculum needs, and school needs. Suggested instruments and/or processes are also provided.

TEACHER NEEDS ASSESSMENT

A teacher needs assessment focuses on the teacher.

Assessing teacher inservice needs can be short and simple or as long and process-oriented as the individuals involved would like. Regardless of time involved, however, there are four (4) stages in the process. Outlined below are the component stages and suggested activities/processes which can be helpful in determining teacher inservice needs.

STAGE 1.

ESTABLISH AN ATMOSPHERE FOR DISCOVERING NEEDS.

For most teachers, inservice is an exciting and welcomed opportunity for professional growth and expansion of teaching experience. But, for some it can be a totally new and perhaps threatening concept. In order to establish a good atmosphere for discovering needs, we suggest that the initiator of the teacher needs assessment (administration, teachers, or community members) should call a meeting of the teachers involved. A person chosen in advance should be prepared to lead the teachers in an open and relaxed group discussion of inservice needs.

In many schools, a simple and informal meeting to discuss inservice will initiate considerable discussion; in other school settings a "warm up" activity such as "KEN'S WHIMSEY EXERCISE" will help to initiate such a discussion.

STAGE II.

IDENTIFY AND RECORD INSERVICE NEEDS.

There are many techniques that inservice coordinators can use in identifying and recording specific teacher needs. The process chosen should suit the nature of the group.

One good way to identify needs is through a group process such as the TEACHER INTEREST GRID activity. Frequently, however, time is short and teachers have limited interest in process-oriented activities such as the TEACHER INTEREST GRID. In that case, we would suggest a less formal teacher needs assessment procedure such as the PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT OBJECTIVE format.

Teachers and schools should also be free to develop their own inservice assessment measures or techniques. There is no "one best way" except as that way is tailored to teacher needs and interests.

STAGE III.

ANALYZING DATA.

Once teachers have identified their needs through the TEACHER INTEREST GRID, PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT OBJECTIVES, or a process of their own choosing, it is critical that ways of meeting those needs be found.

As teachers will realize from participating in some form of needs recording (TEACHER INTEREST GRID, PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT OBJECTIVES, etc.) there are many forms of inservice education. Many of these types of inservice are outlined in Chapter II of this manual.

Basically, teacher needs fall into three (3) broad categories:

- INDIVIDUAL NEEDS: Needs or interests best satisfied by individual activities or personal investigation.
- SMALL GROUP NEEDS: Needs and interests that are shared by a small group of individuals (2-10).
- LARGE GROUP NEEDS: Needs and interests that are shared by a larger number of individuals (10 or more).

STAGE IV.

GETTING ON WITH IT.

Taking into consideration the inservice resources available to a teacher, school or school district and the personal learning styles of each teacher, an inservice plan can be designed that is both cost effective and satisfying to individual teachers.

The person responsible for guiding teachers to satisfying inservice activities should always consider the following:

1. How can I efficiently and effectively deliver inservice support?
2. Are inservice activities meeting the expressed needs of individual teachers? (Teachers with shared needs should be encouraged to participate in shared activities.)
3. Are the inservice solutions cost effective?
4. Are the inservice activities varied in type and specific to needs?
5. Are the activities being evaluated on an ongoing basis so you are sure they are meeting the expressed needs of the teachers involved?

INDIVIDUAL TEACHER NEEDS ASSESSMENT

ACTIVITY

KEN'S WHIMSEY EXERCISE

PURPOSE: This exercise is designed to be used with teachers to establish an atmosphere in which to begin thinking about teacher interests. It is meant to be non-threatening and whimsical in order to relax participants and set a foundation for further discussion.

PROCEDURE: The whimsy exercise can be used in various ways. Because it is a conditioning exercise, not a procedure to elicit specific data, we recommend this format.

It is important to limit the size of the group participating to no more than twenty people. Group members should be comfortable with one another and with the leader.

The leader gives a copy of the six (6) whimsy statements to each member of the group and asks them to write their responses. The leader should emphasize the whimsical nature of the exercise, encouraging the group to let their imaginations range.

When everyone has finished writing, smaller groups of about five should form. Each group can share individual responses in a supportive discussion.

After about thirty minutes of small group discussion, the larger group should reconvene to share significant observations or comments and come to closure with the exercise. The entire exercise should take about an hour.

1. Facilities/Materials: An anonymous donor has recently died and left a million dollars to your school. The principal is asking all teachers for their suggestions for new facilities, equipment and new materials they would like in their classroom. The chance of a lifetime...Spend...spend...spend! What changes in plant would you like to make? What will you want for your room?
2. Workshop: The school board has finally agreed to provide release time and funding for a self-initiated, self-directed mini-course/workshop of your choice. The content and methods are left totally up to you: classroom cardboard carpentry...scuba diving...Russian literature...? What kind of mini-course/workshop will you design?

3. Classroom Atmosphere: This has probably been the worst week in your teaching career. The kids were fighting and bickering with each other as well as with you. Everything you tried to improve the classroom atmosphere failed. Your sympathetic principal has generously offered to take your class until you fully recover. However, he wants to know what he can do to make the classroom situation better when you return? How would you like to see the classroom atmosphere changed?
4. Innovation: The State Department of Education is offering grants for innovative school projects throughout the state. As the money and support begins to flow your principal urges you to submit your "brainstorm" that you've been planning for the past year: a foxfire project?...an urban/rural school exchange?... Describe your "pet project."
5. Communication: A new principal has just been hired. He is very concerned with opening and maintaining communication channels in the school as well as throughout the district. He is already asking teachers what they need in terms of time, support, and effective feedback. What will you suggest?
6. Visitations: The school board has been convinced that happy teachers are better teachers. Therefore, they are allocating funds for "cultural growth activities." Some teachers are planning to visit local historical sites, others are planning to study alternative educational programs in various parts of the country. One teacher is even going on an archeological "dig" in the southwest. What are you going to do?

INDIVIDUAL TEACHER NEEDS ASSESSMENT

CASE STUDY EXERCISE

TEACHER INTEREST GRID

PURPOSE: The purpose of the "Teacher Interest Grid" is to help teachers focus on their personal wants, interests and needs. It is an exercise designed to stimulate thought, generate ideas, and initiate discussions about teacher inservice education.

GENERAL PROCEDURE: The "Teacher Interest Grid" is divided into three (3) parts. These may take as much as thirty minutes each and should be completed during one meeting.

It is important to limit the size of the group doing the "Teacher Interest Grid" to fifteen people or fewer. The members of the group should be comfortable with one another and with the leader.

DIRECTIONS FOR PART A: The group leader gives a "Teacher Interest Grid" to each member of the group. Each person lists five (5) things under each category in Part A. To encourage people to list items, the leader can offer suggestions. Overlapping may occur, and should not be discouraged.

DIRECTIONS FOR PART B. When Part A has been completed, group members should fold out Part B. They should then place check marks in columns that indicate methods and resources that would enable them to meet their needs. The leader should give the group an example.

DIRECTIONS FOR PART C: Along the left-hand margin of the grid, each teacher should star (*) the five (5) most important needs on their list. They should rank these needs in order of importance (1-5, with 1 identifying the most important.)

AT THIS POINT GROUP SHARING AND DISCUSSION SHOULD BE ENCOURAGED

Each person should then list his five (5) most important needs to the attached "Needs Profile Sheet". Under each need, people should list three (3) specific ways in which they might meet their needs. It is extremely important that the five (5) items be stated so that everyone has a common understanding of their meaning. Also, when listing the ways that an individual need can be best met - BE SPECIFIC! A glance back to Part B of the "Teacher Interest Grid" will remind teachers of the variety of ways needs can be met and indicate the types of inservice programs that are available.

EXAMPLE 1.

I need to learn how to work better with students who have reading disabilities.

- a. Graduate course work in reading disabilities
- b. Observation of other teachers and other schools; e.g. Reading Specialist- in Warren Elementary School
- c. More teaching materials - e.g. SRA Kits, Benefic Reading Series

EXAMPLE 2.

Improve classroom management and discipline.

- a. Read Maintaining Sanity in the Classroom
- b. Workshops - recordkeeping, classroom discussion techniques
- c. Materials - DUSO Kit from American Guidance Service, Inc.

The "Teacher Needs Profile Sheet" should be collected and analyzed by the leader. Some Schools will have an inservice coordinator to analyze the data and plan accordingly. When such a person is not available, we recommend that an inservice committee or an interested teacher be given that responsibility.

WARNING: FAILURE TO IMPLEMENT AN INSERVICE PROGRAM OR SUPPORT SERVICE AFTER THE IDENTIFICATION OF NEEDS IS MORE DANGEROUS THAN DOING NOTHING TO BEGIN WITH. DO NOT CREATE EXPECTATIONS UNLESS YOU CAN FOLLOW THROUGH WITH SUPPORT.

TEACHER INTEREST GRID

ART C

Additions you would
like to make to your
classroom.

PART A

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

Things which would
increase your job
satisfaction

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

Things which would
make you a better
teacher.

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

PART B

Work Experience

College/University
Courses

With more money

money
With more time/h
With access
resource
library

With access to
resource materials
library

Mini-course/workshop
institutes

By traveling/
field trips

Working with adm
istration
Working
teach

Working with other teachers

Working with outs
consultants

Done best alone

alone
Research & Pro-
fessional Writing
Profess
Assoc

Professional Association work

Community work

INDIVIDUAL TEACHER NEEDS ASSESSMENT

EXERCISE

TEACHER NEEDS PROFILE SHEET

DIRECTIONS:

On the Profile Sheets which follow, write your five (5) most important professional needs. Under each, list three (3) specific ways in which that need might be met. State each need clearly, so that everyone in your group will know what you mean. Be specific about ways in which your needs can be met. A glance back to Part B of the TEACHER INTEREST GRID will remind you of the many ways needs can be met and of the various types of inservice programs that are available.

EXAMPLE 1.

I need to learn how to work better with students who have reading disabilities.

- a. Graduate course work in reading disabilities.
- b. Observation of other teachers and schools - e.g. Reading Specialist - Warren Elementary School
- c. More teaching materials - e.g. SRA Kits, Benefic Reading Series

EXAMPLE 2.

Improve classroom management and discipline.

- a. Read Maintaining Sanity in the Classroom
- b. Workshops - Recordkeeping, Classroom Discussion Techniques
- c. Materials - DUSO Kit from American Guidance Service, Inc.

TEACHER NEEDS PROFILE SHEET

1. _____

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

2. _____

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

3. _____

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

4. _____

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

5. _____

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT OBJECTIVES

Less formal needs assessment can be done by individual teachers considering areas to improve in order to be more effective teachers. The following is a process of defining and addressing individual teacher needs and wants.

PROCEDURE: Each teacher is asked to consider his strengths and weaknesses as a classroom teacher and to establish one or more professional improvement objectives to work on during a school year. (The attached sheet is used for this purpose.)

Once the improvement objective(s) is established, the inservice coordinator and the teacher should confer to determine the best methods and resources to assist the teacher in meeting the objectives. For example, if five teachers address the same area or need for improvement, they can be grouped accordingly for a workshop, etc.

The inservice coordinator and teacher agree upon a time line and the responsibilities of each party. They then set a time for another conference at which they will discuss progress in reaching the professional improvement objective(s). Once the objective(s) is met, the inservice coordinator writes a letter for the teacher's personnel file indicating the completion of the objective(s) and the nature of work the teacher did.

PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT OBJECTIVES

1. State specifically what you would most like to learn to improve your teaching.
2. By what date would you like to learn this?
3. Through what methods do you feel you could best learn this? (e.g. one-to-one contact, workshop, course, etc.)
4. What time commitment do you feel is necessary to learn this?
5. What time commitment can you make to this?
6. What resources, if any, do you need to learn this?

Conference Date _____

Teacher's Signature _____

Inservice Coordinator's Signature _____

Date Scheduled for Progress Check _____ Date Objective Completed _____

Report by Inservice Coordinator _____

NEEDS ASSESSMENT IN A CURRICULUM AREA



A curriculum area needs assessment deals with an in-depth study of all the factors that affect that curriculum area.

CRITERIA FOR SUCCESS: Commitment, Involvement, Time, Communication

A procedure:

A. STAGE ONE

1. Establish a steering committee of persons involved with the curriculum area. This group would include teachers, support services personnel, administrators, etc. (We recommend about eight persons.) One person should lead the group.
2. Gather data on the following when looking at a curriculum area.
 - * Philosophy
 - * Organization
 - * Student Needs
 - * Materials
 - * Resources
 - * Staffing
3. Use one or more of the following methods:
 1. A questionnaire for all teachers about the curriculum area
 2. A review of student outcome data such as standardized test results, student records, and possibly a questionnaire to students
 3. Observations made by an outside consultant (many state departments of education have such consultants)

Appendix A has a two-part sample questionnaire for teachers in the curriculum area of reading. Appendix B is a sample student questionnaire of factors which affect a reading program. We recommend that the outside consultant follow a similar format.

*WARNING: ALWAYS USE QUESTIONNAIRES CONSISTENT IN FORMAT AND SUBSTANCE IN ORDER TO COLLECT DATA THAT IS EASY TO INTERPRET AND COLLATE.

4. Distribute responsibilities for specific duties such as distribution and collection of questionnaires, consultant scheduling, and collation of data among the committee

B. STAGE TWO

1. Once the data is collected from one or more of the three (3) suggested sources, the steering committee makes DRAFT recommendations for the curriculum.

2. The recommendations are then given to all involved. Each person organizes the recommendations into the following categories:

High Priority - should be done as soon as possible

Moderate Priority - should be done within the next two or three years

Low Priority - should be done, but can wait three to five years

Needs Clarification

Invalid

Additional Recommendations

(Appendix C is a sample format)

3. From these recommendations, the group can develop specific goals and objectives for the curriculum area.
4. The steering committee should oversee the implementation and continuing evaluation of plans for meeting specific objectives.

SAMPLE

An opinion survey for teachers of factors that affect reading instruction in grades K-8.

Circle grade level(s) taught K 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

School _____

Please check the column that most clearly reflects your opinion concerning your reading program and rate it accordingly.

<u>ATMOSPHERE CONDUCIVE TO READING</u>	<u>STRONG</u>	<u>GOOD</u>	<u>FAIR</u>	<u>UNSATISFACTORY</u>	<u>NOT APPLI- CAPLE</u>
1. Class size _____					
2. Diversity of available materials					
3. Amount of instructional time					
4. Freedom to develop own program					
5. Room environment _____					

YOUR DIAGNOSTIC TECHNIQUES

1. Availability of diagnostic instruments					
2. Your variety of diagnostic instruments					
3. Your administration of diagnostic instruments					
4. Your interpretation of diagnostic instruments					

ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERNS

1. Total group instruction _____					
2. Small group instruction _____					
3. One to one instruction _____					
4. Free reading _____					
5. U.S.S.R. _____					
6. Homework _____					

	STRONG	GOOD	FAIR	UNSATISFACTORY	NOT APPLI-CABLE
7. Use of media _____					
8. Supplementary materials (kits, games, etc.) _____					

MEETING INDIVIDUAL NEEDS

1. Superior reader _____					
2. Average reader _____					
3. Remedial reader _____					

PROGRAM IN GENERAL

1. Basal _____					
2. Co-basal _____					
3. Language Experience _____					
4. Programmed materials _____					
5. Sight vocabulary _____					
6. Linguistics _____					
7. Structural analysis _____					
8. Phonics _____					
9. Comprehension skills _____					
10. Content area reading _____					
11. Critical reading _____					
12. Work and study habits _____					
13. Literature (poetry, drama, non-fiction, etc.) _____					

INSTRUCTIONAL PLANNING

1. Long range objectives					
2. Weekly planning _____					
3. Daily planning _____					
4. Unit planning _____					

<u>RECORD KEEPING</u>	<u>STRONG</u>	<u>GOOD</u>	<u>FAIR</u>	<u>UNSATISFACTORY</u>	<u>NOT APPLI-CABLE</u>
1. Skills checklists/M.O.'s _____					
2. Anecdotal records _____					
3. Grade books _____					
4. Individual file folders _____					
5. Graphs _____					
6. Student maintained records _____					
7. Comprehensiveness of present record keeping system _____					
8. Efficiency of present record keeping system _____					

HELPS TO CLASSROOM TEACHER

1. Availability of:					
a. Administration _____					
b. Consulting teacher program _____					
c. Remedial reading program _____					
d. Learning disabilities _____					
e. Speech & language program _____					
f. Washington County Mental Health Program _____					
g. Library resources _____					
h. Planning time _____					
2. Inservice days _____					
3. Team meetings _____					
4. Reading curriculum meetings _____					
5. Teacher Aides _____					
6. Volunteers _____					

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS: _____

7. Comment on the weaknesses of your reading program _____

8. Of the following, indicate which you can administer - interpret - or both!

	ADMINISTER	INTERPRET	BOTH
Gates - MacGinity -----			
Cooper - Maguire -----			
Prescriptive Reading Inventory -----			
Woodcock -----			
Iowa Silent Reading -----			
Informal Reading Inventory -----			
Durrell Reading Analysis -----			
Colze -----			
Spache -----			
Other -----			

9. Please list any specific area(s) in reading in which you think a course would be beneficial to you:

SAMPLEQUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS IN A READING PROGRAM

Circle grade level: 4 5 6 7 8

School _____

Date _____

DIRECTIONS: Answer the questions the way you feel about reading.

1. I think I am a *good* *fair* *poor* reader.
2. I like to read *alot* *a little* *very little*.
3. I have time in class to read *alot* *sometimes* *very little*.
4. My classroom is a pleasant place to read in. *yes* *no* .
5. My teacher lets me choose books to read *alot* *sometimes* *very little*.
6. I *like* *dislike* using workbooks.
7. I *like* *dislike* doing worksheets.
8. The thing I like best about reading time in my classroom is: _____

9. The thing I like least about reading in my classroom is: _____

10. I *like* *dislike* the book I am now reading in school. The title of my book
is: _____
11. If I could change my reading program I would: _____

12. The best book I have ever read is: _____

NEEDS ASSESSMENT
SAMPLE EVALUATION FORM

Name _____

Date: _____

RECOMMENDATION	NEEDS CLARIFICATION	INVALID	PRIORITY	COMMENTS

Additional Recommendations:

AREAS OF LEARNING

Additional Recommendations:

SCHOOLWIDE NEEDS ASSESSMENT STRATEGY



A school involved in a needs assessment process may or may not be in sorry shape. A school undergoing assessment looks at all aspects of its operation over a one to two year period. Needs assessment should fully involve teachers, administrators, board members, support people, students, cooks, custodians, parents, community members - EVERYONE!

CRITERIA FOR SUCCESS: COMMITMENT, INVOLVEMENT, TIME, COMMUNICATION

A Procedure

A. STAGE ONE

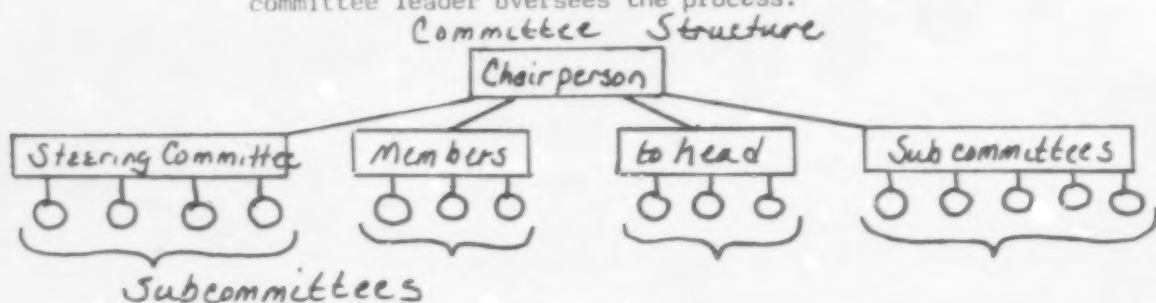
1. Establish a steering committee to run the needs assessment process. This steering committee should be representative of everyone in the school. We recommend a group of eight with one person chosen as leader.
2. If possible, get an outside consultant to work with the steering committee - many state departments of education will provide consultation services.
3. Define the issues to be examined. We suggest:
 - a. Philosophy
 - b. Community Needs and Goals
 - c. Administration - Supervision - Organization

- d. Curriculum and Instruction
- e. Pupil Support Services (e.g. guidance, health, etc.)
- f. Resources (e.g. library, media)
- g. Inservice Education
- h. Personnel
- i. School Plant
- j. Transportation
- k. Food Services

4. Decide whether you want to develop your own assessment instrument or use one which is already developed.

*WARNING: IF YOU WANT TO DEVELOP YOUR OWN, ADD A YEAR TO THE PROCEDURE. APPENDIX A LISTS SOME DEVELOPED MATERIALS THAT CAN BE USED OR EASILY ADAPTED.

5. Make each member of the steering committee responsible for certain sections. We recommend that each steering committee member assume the leadership of a sub-committee which represents all groups in the school community. The steering committee leader oversees the process.



6. Establish timelines.

**WARNING: THIS PROCESS CAN BREAK DOWN IF COMMUNICATIONS ARE NOT CLEAR OR IF THE DUTIES OF EACH PERSON ARE NOT DEFINED. EACH SUB-COMMITTEE SHOULD USE THE SAME PROCESS FOR DATA COLLECTION.

B. STAGE TWO

1. After the sub-committees collect data, they return it to their steering committee member who in turn gives the information to the leader.

WARNING: NEVER ALLOW THE DATA FROM ONE SUB-COMMITTEE TO BE USED IN ISOLATION FROM OTHER SECTIONS. LOOK AT THE TOTAL SCHOOL.

2. The steering committee pulls the data together and draws up specific recommendations for each sub-committee in DRAFT form. Some processes call for the use of a non-partisan review. This is accomplished by a team coming in from outside the community for a number of days, reviewing the data and the school and making recommendations.

3. The recommendations are then given to all involved. Each person organizes the recommendations into the following categories:

High Priority - should be done as soon as possible

Moderate Priority - should be done within the next two or three years

Low Priority - should be done, but can wait three to five years

Needs Clarification

Invalid

Additional Recommendations

(Appendix B is a sample format)

4. From the recommendations list, specific goals and objectives can be developed with a timeline which meets the needs of the school.

(Appendix C is a sample format)

5. The steering committee then sets up a system which will determine if the objectives are being met within the timeline.

6. If necessary, update and revise the process, after a trial period.

NEEDS ASSESSMENTSAMPLE FORMAT FOR RECOMMENDATIONS

The needs assessment evaluation process has been a long and arduous one. We have looked at ourselves through our sub-committees, shared that information with an on-site team, and now have their report with recommendations.

It was not the job of the on-site team to give us orders, but only make recommendations. Attached is a form to evaluate their suggestions.

DIRECTIONS:

1. Look at the recommendation.
2. If you do not understand it or feel it is incomplete, place a check (✓) in the "Needs Clarification" column.
3. If you feel that the recommendation is not sound or would not be appropriate for _____ School, place a check (✓) in the column labeled "Invalid."
4. If you think that the recommendation is fine, then assign it a priority according to the following:
 - H - High Priority, should be done as soon as possible
 - M - Moderate Priority, should be done within the next two to three years
 - L - Low Priority, should be done but can wait three to five years

NEEDS ASSESSMENT
SAMPLE EVALUATION FORM

Name _____

Date: _____

RECOMMENDATION	NEEDS CLARIFICATION	INVALID	PRIORITY	COMMENTS

Additional Recommendations:

AREAS OF LEARNING				

Additional Recommendations:

NEEDS ASSESSMENTFORMAT OF OBJECTIVES AND TIMELINESAMPLE

SCHOOL PLANT AND FACILITIES

Visiting Committee Commendations

1. The custodial staff takes evident pride in its building.
2. Media Center seems to be adequate for present enrollment.
3. Art Center Area is large and allows for work on projects.

Goals and ObjectivesE.G.

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------------|
| 1. Develop and Audio-Visual area-group film area | (Sept. 76 goal)
<u>COMPLETED</u> |
| 2. Establish a teacher workroom and faculty lounge. | (Sept. 77 goal)
<u>COMPLETED</u> |
| 3. Purchase refrigerator for nurse's office. | (Sept. 76 goal)
<u>COMPLETED</u> |
| 4. Develop a final plan for the driveway and implement it. | November 1975 |
| 5. Study of the placement of the playground by administration, board and staff and adoption of final recommendation. | November 1975 |
| 6. Improve use of available storage space. | September 1976 |
| 7. Build storage areas and shelves into existing classroom areas. | September 1976 |
| 8. Carpet hallways and/or classrooms. | September 1979 |
| 9. Add sinks and toilets to the south building. | September 1979 |
| 10. Improve the lighting in the gym. | September 1980 |

Wilson, Marian L. Inservice educational needs of teachers. Washington, D.C.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, November 1974. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 093 896)

National Study of School Evaluation. Elementary School Evaluation Criteria: A Guide For School Improvement, National Study of School Evaluation, Arlington, Virginia, 1973

MEETING/WORKSHOP FORMAT

Teacher-centered workshops generally prove to be highly effective inservice tools. To make them highly productive, participants must follow some time-proven guidelines.

When teachers are active in a workshop, sharing ideas and activities, there is generally a mutual exchange of interests and support. Successful meetings are usually highly beneficial for teachers.

In summary, the goals of this section are:

1. To recognize meetings and workshops as a means of communication for participants and a potential setting for mutual support and sharing.
2. To recognize effective workshops as an important inservice tool.
3. To establish guidelines helpful to the planning of effective workshops.



MEETING/WORKSHOP FORMATS

ACTIVITY

PURPOSE:

This is a warm-up/awareness activity to get inservice leaders thinking about the major issues in planning inservice workshops. Participants, through a brainstorming introduction, will identify factors which make for good workshops.

PROCEDURE:

An opening activity for meeting/workshop formats might follow these steps. (For a group of 5 - 10 people) The rules for brainstorming are included in the general appendix.

Brainstorm ideas for a good workshop. Topics might include:

- Location
- Subject
- People
- Method of Presentation
- Etc.

List any other possibilities for meeting/workshop formats. When all possibilities have been exhausted, the group can eliminate duplication and compile a comprehensive list.

Hang all lists so that they are visible to the whole group.

MEETING/WORKSHOP FORMATS

CASE STUDY EXERCISE

"THE BEST WORKSHOP EVER"

PURPOSE:

After the brainstorming activity, members of the group will recall specific workshops, courses, meetings or conferences that met their personal and professional needs. (Most participants will have attended an effective workshop. If not, have the participant describe an ideal workshop.) During this process, the leader should bring out participant awareness of the importance of planning and the need for a flexible response to participant needs. This activity will probably result in a set of group-designed guidelines for a well-run workshop.

PROCEDURE:

For each category from the brainstorming list, participants should outline, in writing, the best workshop they have ever attended. Aspects of different workshops can be used for difference categories.

Have each participant share their results with the group.

Conclude by deriving, from the discussion, guidelines for a well-run workshop. Guidelines should be developed for each category taken from the brainstorming list.

WORKSHOP PLANNING CHECK LIST

PURPOSE: To give the leader of a workshop a format to follow when planning a participant-oriented workshop.

IN YOUR PLANNING HAVE YOU CONSIDERED:The Location

- Is the workshop space adequate?
- Is the workshop site easy to get to?
- Are there areas for large and small group activities as well as private places for individuals to work?
- Are the physical qualities of the site (ventilation, aesthetics, lighting) conducive to a good workshop?
- Is there a place for lunch and refreshments?

The Time

- Is the workshop time adequate to cover the topic?
- Is it a convenient time for participants?
- Is it an intensive workshop?
- Is the workshop planned for release time?
- Will participants have individual time planned into the workshop?
- Is the workshop for a morning, an afternoon, or a full day?
- Will there be flexibility in scheduling?

The Topic

- Is the subject relevant to the participants?
- Is the subject self-limiting in any way?
- Is there a demonstrated need to introduce the topic?
- Is it a controversial topic?
- How did the topic originate? (e.g. consensus decision, mandated decision, instructor's decision, etc.)

Method of Presentation

- Will the workshop method be suited to the workshop topic?
- Will a variety of methods be used?
- Will there be planned time for reflection, questions and/or simulations?
- Will there be large group and/or small group activities?
- How will the atmosphere be made conducive to sharing and mutual support?
- Will the overall intent of the workshop be carried throughout?
- Will there be handouts of information and/or materials?
- Will audio-visual materials be available?
- Will the workshop maximize the involvement of the participants?
- Will there be effective use of "ice breakers" and closure techniques?

Methods

- Illustrated Lecture
- Demonstration
- Observation
- Interviewing
- Brainstorming
- Flow Charting
- Group Discussions
- Buzz Sessions
- Role Playing
- Learning Centers
- Laboratory Experiences
- Guided Experiences
- Active Problem Solving

Materials/Resources

- Will there be a variety of materials and resources available?
- Will materials be suitable to the topic of the workshop?
- Will there be enough for everyone?
- Will purchaseable materials and resources be affordable to participants?
- Will materials be displayed?
- Will secretarial services be provided?
- Will runners or "go-fers" be provided?
- Will there be an overall process observer/recorder for the workshop?

Ongoing Considerations

- Will weather conditions affect the workshop?
- Will there be a continued feedback system from participants to leaders and visa-versa?
- How will the energy level of participants be maintained?
- Will there be substance to the workshop?
- Will adequate planning be done ahead of time?
- Will there be time and strategies for evaluation?

Other Considerations

- Will the workshop be publicized?
- Will custodial services be provided for?
- How will registration be handled?
- How will financial arrangements be handled?
- Will the workshop need or have a follow-up plan?

Workshop Leader

- Is the appropriate leader available for the workshop?

- What practical experience does the leader have?
- What theoretical experience does the leader have?
- How will the leader's personality affect the workshop?
- How will the leader's reputation affect the workshop?
- Can the leader establish a good rapport?
- Does the leader possess credibility?
- How will the sex of the leader affect the workshop?
- Does the leader have access to resources?
- Will the leader's physical appearance enhance the workshop?
- Is the leader willing to follow-up on workshop ideas?
- Can the leader make an effective presentation?

Workshop Participants

- How many participants will there be?
- Will workshop participants have similar or mixed interests?
- What are the experience levels of the participants?
- What are the ages of the participants?
- What are the educational levels of the participants?
- What is the geographical distribution of the participants?
- What is the ethnic background of participants?
- Why will participants be attending?
- Will the participants need to meet specific requirements or to possess special qualifications in order to attend?
- Will participants play a role in the planning of the workshop?

A good agenda can often make a workshop more effective. Skill in setting an agenda is required of a good leader. We recommend the following procedure, taken from a training package for principals.

HOW TO IMPROVE MEETINGS*

Have the group build the agenda. At the beginning of the meeting, ask the group to spend a few minutes developing the agenda, emphasizing that it should include matters of real concern only. Agenda items should be put into two categories: (a) information items and (b) decision items.

If the group is larger than twelve, ask them to break into smaller groups for five minutes, with each group to come up with three or four major items. In this way, everyone has a chance to talk.

Make the agenda visible. On a chalkboard, or on newsprint, list the items in two columns -- INFORMATION ISSUES

Decide on time limits. Suggest some time limits for discussing each column, e.g. 15 minutes for the INFORMATION items and an hour and forty-five minutes on the ISSUES. The purpose of the meeting and the group's expectations about length will have an effect here. Find out how long people want to meet, and their time constraints. They will bless you for this. You might even put a time limit on each item.

Prioritize the items. Have the group quickly indicate which items have high, medium, and low priority, and which can be dealt with in some way other than at this meeting. Informational items can be dealt with by newsletter or memorandum.

Keep moving ahead on the agenda. Whoever is presiding must be a tough task master and keep people moving ahead on the agenda. Others can help with this function. If too much time is being taken, or the discussion strays from the plan, this should be pointed out to the group so that they know what they are doing. If they decide to alter the agenda, it is their decision, but they need to have pointed out to them that such a decision has consequences.

Record decisions and next steps to be taken. When you get to ISSUES, be sure all decisions are recorded, including who is going to do what and when.

Evaluate the meeting. Before people leave the meeting, have them quickly respond to questions about the meeting, e.g., "On a scale of 1 to 9, indicate how this meeting compares with other meetings recently attended, was it productive?, was there widescale participation?, are they satisfied with the meeting?"

Have an observer. If the group is to increase the effectiveness of meetings, one or two observers should watch for and feed back at appropriate times, data collected through the use of procedures such as those in the following "Observations of Organizational Planning Components," and "Observations of Meeting Conducted."

*Gaskell, William G. "The Development of a Leadership Training Process for Principals Final Report" ED 074 615

OBSERVATIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL AND PLANNING COMPONENTS*

1. Clarity of objectives - Why the meeting? What purposes are to be served?
2. Clarity of roles - Who does what and who knows?
3. Visibility of plan for meeting - Agenda? How determined, how importance determined?
Decision items separated from information discussion items.
4. Visibility of operational plans - Chairman, recorder, observer, procedures-timelines and participant expectations.

OBSERVATIONS OF MEETING CONDUCTED*

1. Content v.s. Process - Was the agenda the content or were digressions the time consuming events?
2. Communication - Did they team talk (a real dialogue) or turn talk?
3. Decision Making - Were decision items on agenda separated from discussion items? How decisions reached - Consensus based on shared data or majority vote based on generated power?
4. Maintenance Tasks - Who performed them? What were they? What could they have been? initiating - information seeker, clarifying or elaborating, summarizing, consensus testing - etc.
5. Emotional climate and issues - Was it trusting - risking - trying new things together or tight, inflexible political games were the thing? Were feelings legitimate?
6. Involvement of Participants - Was total membership involved? Were possibilities for total involvement possible?
7. Time spent v.s. productivity - Were participants involved in evaluating the meeting? Improving it?

*Gaskell, William G. "The Development of a Leadership Training Process for Principals Final Report" ED 072 615

Davis, Larry Nolan, and McCallon, Earl. Planning, conducting and evaluating workshops. Austin, Texas: Learning Concepts, 1974

Ritz, William C., et al. How to conduct a workshop. Syracuse, New York: Eastern Regional Institute for Education, 1970. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 065 486)

INCENTIVES



Inservice education has as its ultimate goal the improvement of the quality of education. To achieve this goal, teachers must participate in inservice activities and also design personal plans for educational improvement.

Inservice activities can offer tangible and intangible benefits to teachers, rewards ranging from job improvement and re-certification to enrichment and enjoyment.

Incentives are important to the total inservice planning process: this section suggests ways to reward participants involved in productive inservice education.

This section provides information about incentives, not a model for their use. The effective use of rewards depends on many variables in a local setting (individual teacher attitudes, types of inservice activities, classroom situations, timeliness of activities, etc.). Each school or school district can use the following information to construct incentives appropriate to its own situation.

The purposes of this section are:

1. To show that it is important to give each teacher the opportunity to develop personal and professional potential.
2. To suggest methods of motivating educators to participate in inservice activities.
3. To examine the tangible and intangible benefits in inservice activities -- such as job improvement, certification, enrichment, and enjoyment.
4. To show kinds of recognition possible for inservice participants.
5. To suggest that even a self-motivated teacher appreciates support and recognition for inservice participation.

There is a wide variety of intrinsic and extrinsic incentives for teacher inservice education. Ideally, each teacher should want professional improvement for its own sake. Realistically, some teachers need external encouragement to enhance internal motivation for professional growth. Various groups who have an interest in continuing education for teachers value different inducements and foresee different results from their use.

MONEY: Money is the most tangible incentive for teacher inservice. School boards, community members, and administrators can be helped to view paid inservice education worth the cost because it results in a more competent staff. Credit, both graduate and re-certification credit, is a form of money for teachers.

CAREER ADVANCEMENT: Advancement opportunities are tangible incentives for inservice education. Teachers may receive promotion and higher salaries.

TIME: Release time can be an incentive for inservice education. Teachers and administrators need time for preparation, independent study, observation, visitation, and reflection.

RESEARCH: University personnel often want to do research in local school districts. If local teachers and students participate in such research programs, grant money may be made available to school districts. Educators involved in research, whether independent or directed, grow in knowledge and prestige. This is an inservice opportunity which brings with it a built-in reward.

MATERIALS: Handouts, innovative materials, and new information can stimulate interest in inservice. Teachers are always looking for new classroom materials and ideas. The possibility of improved classroom capability through inservice is a powerful inducement.

COOPERATIVE PARTICIPATION: Many people value an atmosphere of mutual support and involvement. For them, inservice programs which include feedback and sharing will stimulate active participation and provide their own reward.

IMPROVED INSTRUCTIONAL SERVICES: The prospect of instructional improvement is a strong incentive for teacher participation in inservice. School boards, community members, and administrators will support inservice programs that result in better preparation

of students. University personnel will also support efforts to better prepare students as undergraduates. Program efforts to keep teachers up-to-date in technological and methodological changes and innovations will also gather support from all levels.

SATISFACTION: Many teachers are interested in inservice programs that provide for opportunities for self-improvement and personal growth. Programs that can increase job satisfaction, improve working conditions, or simply make a job easier, may provide sufficient reward for many teachers.

NOVELTY, EXPOSURE, INNOVATION: Inservice programs which offer something new, exciting, and expanding have intrinsic incentive value.

INCREASED STATUS: Incentive can be provided by using teachers as instructional leaders for other teachers, increasing self-esteem. Recognition of inservice leadership improves individual as well as staff morale.

PRIDE: Highly quality inservice education can result in the enhanced reputation of teachers in the community and in heightened pride in the school. This kind of intangible reward can be highly motivating for some teachers in some schools.

RELEVANT PROGRAMMING: Appropriate and useful materials and ideas are provided to meet an expressed need. If a particular inservice activity meets a participant's needs, it provides its own reward.

RENEWAL: A process or activity may be geared to "re-charge" a teacher's "battery."

VESTED INTEREST: Teachers involved in planning inservice activities are more likely to find them rewarding.

The following checklist may be used by people committed to inservice education to:

1. Elicit support for inservice
2. Justify the importance of inservice
3. Demonstrate the need for inservice
4. Evaluate the result of inservice
5. Suggest motives for inservice

It is a list of benefits of inservice as they apply to the various groups involved.

TEACHER

- A teacher will receive money for participating.
- A teacher will receive credit (graduate, re-certification) for participating.
- A teacher will advance in job position.
- A teacher will be allocated special time to participate.
- A teacher will receive useful classroom materials and information.
- A teacher will receive support and feedback from colleagues and participate in a cooperative system of information sharing.
- A teacher can grow professionally.
- A teacher will be able to improve instructional skills.
- A teacher will benefit from improved school-community relations.
A teacher's public image will be improved.
- A teacher will be brought up-to-date, or will learn something new.
- A teacher's working conditions improve as a result of the experience.

- A teacher's job satisfaction will be increased.
- A teacher will experience self-development.
- A teacher will receive some status/recognition (self-esteem will be increased).
- A teacher will feel a sense of pride in the school and a sense of stake in the inservice activity.

ADMINISTRATION

- Teacher inservice will help an administrator to be more accountable.
- Teacher inservice will increase shared decision-making.
- An administrator's public image will be improved (friend of teachers, innovator, instructional leader, etc.).
- An administrator's professional status can be enhanced.
- Outside funding consultants, and research opportunities can be attracted to local schools through inservice programs.
- The school staff will show increased pride.
- School-community relations will be improved.

STUDENTS

- Students will be exposed to a wider range of educational experiences.
- Students will receive more effective instructional time.
- Students will be better prepared for careers and higher education.
- Students will have happier, more satisfied teachers.
- Students will benefit from additional materials in the classroom.
- Students will actually participate in inservice activities with their teachers.
- Students will serve as a feedback system for evaluation of their teachers.
- Students will show increased pride and interest in their school experiences.

INSTITUTIONS

- The university will receive tuition income from inservice programs.
- University faculty will have more opportunities to consult.
- University faculty will be able to use local school districts for research and development projects.
- University faculty will be able to use local school districts for reality-based feedback.
- University faculty will be able to supplement their staff with local school district personnel.
- Teacher inservice will provide the university with better prepared undergraduates.
- The university will be able to expand and improve its pre-service teacher education program.

COMMUNITY

- The community will better understand where their educational tax dollar is spent.
- The community will better understand the continuing education of teachers.
- The community will better understand the workings of the school.
- The community will learn from participation in teacher inservice.
- The community will experience improved school-community communications.
- The community will feel an increased sense of pride in its schools.

SCHOOL BOARD.

Because of its all-encompassing responsibility, a school board may wish to utilize the entire list.

- Adams, Dennis M. Helping teachers cope with change. Education Canada, September 1974, 14 (3), 16-19
- Felker, Donald W.; Goering, Jacob; and Linden, Kathryn W. Teacher rigidity and continuing education. The Journal of Teacher Education, Winter 1971, 22 (4), 460-463
- Houmes, Gary. Revitalizing inservice training for change. Educational Technology, December 1974, 14 (12), 33-34
- Miller, Harry G., and Swick, Kevin J. Community incentives for teacher excellence. Education, Spring 1976, 96 (3), 235-237
- Schankerman, Maurice. Inservice education: A study of the participation patterns of a selected group of elementary school teachers. Doctoral dissertation, Indiana University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. Ed 034 118)

PARENT/COMMUNITY AWARENESS OF INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

Education is--and will remain--one of society's chief tasks. Those directly responsible for the education of children also have a responsibility to inform the community about what they are doing, and to involve the community in these activities whenever practical. Those responsible for inservice education have a parallel responsibility to provide information to the community on the program's effectiveness. The community has a right to short and long-term information; parents need to know (1) what teachers did last Wednesday when the kids were sent home from school early and (2) how that inservice release time experience will affect the quality of education which the kids receive.



Certain community problems often arise due to school inservice activities. The schools may want to help solve these problems, for example, by helping working parents find babysitters for release time hours during normal school days.

It is sometimes very difficult for school people to understand the ramifications of certain decisions unless a special effort is made to understand the community. The schools can make this effort by following a five-step program outlined fully in the Implementation Plan (Appendix A):

1. Provide a way for community members to voice their concerns and suggestions to a group of committed, responsible listeners.
2. Identify community elements which influence and are influenced by the schools.
3. Understand the formal and informal structure of the community.
4. Actually engage in one-to-one and small group dialogues to build school-community trust.
5. Designate someone to be responsible for Steps 1-4. Their role is essential to the success of any communication effort.

Community support should be a logical outgrowth of citizen awareness of the school's activities. The knowledgeable, supportive community provides money, trust and patience for inservice, as well as other school activities.

PARENT/COMMUNITY AWARENESS OF INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

ACTIVITY

PURPOSE: This activity is designed to prepare school administrators or teachers to answer community questions about inservice. An inservice coordinator would best direct this activity.

PROCEDURE: This is a role-playing activity to be used with a small group (5-10). One member is designated (turns should be taken) to represent a teacher. The other participants are to choose from (face down) index cards designating their role (e.g. barber, storekeeper, bus driver, cafeteria worker, superintendent of schools, etc.). These roles should represent key people or groups in the community.

The TEACHER will be approached by each COMMUNITY MEMBER and asked "What is inservice?" What do you do when the kids are released?", or a similar role-appropriate question which will initiate dialogue about inservice education.

The other members will find it valuable to:

1. Identify the importance of each person's perception of inservice education
2. Recognize the conceptual level of each dialogue (e.g. a conversation with a barber may be very different from a conversation with the superintendent of schools)
3. Recognize any change in attitude on the part of the TEACHER or COMMUNITY MEMBERS

PARENT/COMMUNITY AWARENESS OF INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

ACTIVITY

PURPOSE: This activity will help to define the role of the person responsible for increasing district awareness of inservice educational activities and policies. It is designed to generate a job description for such an individual.

PROCEDURE: This activity is for a group of school people concerned with inservice education.

In a small group (5-12) make a list of responsibilities. Begin by choosing from or adding to the following list:

1. Public relations responsibilities
2. Design and implement a feedback loop for school/ community interaction
3. Monitor and evaluate inservice programs
- 4.
- 5.

An alternative starter question might be, "If you were the person designated to increase community awareness of inservice activities, what would your responsibilities be?"

Make this list on large paper and display it for the group. Be sure to keep the discussion on the conceptual level of responsibilities and not on specific tasks.

PARENT/COMMUNITY AWARENESS OF INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

EXERCISE

PURPOSE:

The purpose of this exercise is to translate the job description from the previous activity into specific tasks for a particular school site. It is designed for an inservice task force or committee.

PROCEDURE:

With the same group of 5-12 people and with the list of responsibilities visible to the group, delineate specific tasks and duties which are part of each responsibility.

e.g. A. Public relations responsibilities

1. Prepare and disseminate news releases
2. Issue community newsletters
3. Make oneself available for group speaking engagements
- 4.
- 5.

B. Design and implement a feedback loop

1. Have and use a list of influential community members
2. Attend individual school board meetings
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.

PARENT/COMMUNITY AWARENESS OF INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

CASE STUDY EXERCISE

PURPOSE:

This exercise is designed to identify community members and organizations holding positions in the power structure of the school community. Through this activity a group of teachers or administrators can begin to improve school/community relations by understanding the local power structure.

PROCEDURE:

Have a small group (5-12) brainstorm all the groups and individuals that are considered a part of the educational community and put them on a list.

- e.g. - Teachers
- School Board
 - Cafeteria Workers
 - Students
 - PTA
 - _____, who writes letters to the local paper

Refine this list. Distribute copies to a representative sample of all the groups and individuals on the list. Ask each recipient to:

1. Rank (1,2,3) the elements in the educational community which influence the schools the most. (1-most influential).
2. Rank (1,2,3) the three elements in the educational community which are influenced most by the schools (1-most influenced).

This information can be converted into a sociogram that will help school leaders analyze and understand the educational community within which they work.

PURPOSE:

This is a preparation exercise for school personnel (teachers, administrators) who may have to deal with community questions which arise about school inservice activities. The purpose of this exercise is to examine the effects of inservice education on the local community. Many community members are disrupted or inconvenienced by activities which require release time. The school may find it adds to improved school-community relations to accommodate some of these inconveniences.

PROCEDURE:

PART I.

For this brainstorming activity, assume the roles of community members and answer the question, "What would happen to you if students were released every Wednesday afternoon?"

- (e.g. 1. The kids would be hanging around my store.
2. I need to locate and pay a babysitter.
3. My kid would be missing out on learning.)

Make this list visible on large sheets of paper.

Next, in the same role of community members, brainstorm solutions to questions your problems posed. (e.g. "Would you find it helpful ...

1. if there were babysitting facilities provided?
2. if other community activities were planned for this time?
3. if a late bus were to provide additional transportation?
4. etc...)

The list should also be recorded on large sheets of paper and displayed.

PART II.

From the brainstormed lists the group can develop a community questionnaire that will identify specific community problems caused by inservice activities and possible solutions to them.

To establish parent/community awareness, the inservice leader should:

1. Provide continuous information to the community on inservice activities and their demonstrated effectiveness
2. Suggest ways in which the school might accommodate possible inconvenience to parents caused by inservice activities
3. Use local community people as inservice resources
4. Show that any public presentation of inservice activities can be made more effective if community members are actively involved
5. Provide a practical way for community members to voice concerns and suggestions to a group of effective, responsible listeners; (e.g. teachers, administrators, school board members, or a combined group)
6. Identify the community elements which influence the school and are influenced by it in order to be most effective in dealing with the community
7. Show that one-to-one and small group contacts build school-community trust
8. Make someone responsible for helping to increase community awareness of inservice activities and resources. This person may be part of an executive committee or task force on teacher inservice education.

The following is a partial list of practical ways to allow community members to discuss their concerns and suggestions with a group of committed, responsible listeners.

1. Radio talk shows
2. Open telephone lines
3. A coffee hour with local groups
4. A suggestion box
5. Education column in the local newspaper
6. Issue-oriented meetings
7. Periodic newsletter
8. Slide show presentation of actual school and inservice activities

A real alternative: The final report and recommendations of the Community National Field Task Force on the Improvement and Reform of American Education. Washington, D.C.: National Center for Improvement of Educational Systems, 1974. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 093 865)

Mesa, Pete. Community involvement and inservice teacher education: The urban/rural approach. ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, January 1976

The San Jose Parent Advisory Council Handbook, prepared by the San Jose Unified School District Parent Advisory Task Force in March 1973

UTILIZATION OF LOCAL SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY PERSONNEL
FOR INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

Quality inservice activities can often be provided through resources within the local faculty and community. Within the total school community may lie abundant talent and expertise that could be incorporated into exciting inservice activities. To identify and use these valuable school and community resources becomes a prime responsibility of the inservice coordinator or committee.

Louis Rubin points out that "a practicing teacher is the best possible teacher of teachers." But there are potential problems in using teachers to teach teachers. Some of these considerations are discussed in this section.



Usually, the utilization of local people means providing quality inservice programs at reasonable costs. In addition, local resource people who become involved in inservice activities bring to their assignments an invaluable asset--they are aware of local problems, local issues and local needs.

When an inservice program includes follow-up programming, the use of local resource people provides continuity and continuing motivation unavailable from outside resource people.

In summary, the purposes of this section are:

1. To identify and utilize the talents of faculty and local community persons.
2. To promote quality inservice education at reasonable cost.
3. To promote the use of knowledgeable persons who are aware of local issues.
4. To show that use of local resource people will facilitate follow-up on activities generated by inservice programs.
5. To show how to compile an effective resource file of teachers.
6. To provide a list of considerations for making teaching of teachers by teachers work.

UTILIZATION OF LOCAL SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY PERSONNEL

FOR INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

CASE STUDY EXERCISE

COMPILING A RESOURCE LIST OF
LOCAL SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY PERSONNEL FOR INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

In compiling a resource list for a single faculty, school, district, or even an entire state, it is important to provide people with a range of topics from which they might choose their own areas of expertise. This does not mean other areas cannot be included, but a list will make identification easier, and thus more likely. It is also important to make sure that resource people are willing to share their area of expertise with groups of teachers.

The following is a suggested list of topics from the New Hampshire Educational Resource Catalogue - Part II - Personnel Contacts*

- Activity-Centered Classrooms
- Administration
- Adult Education
 - *Individualized Learning
 - *Open Classroom
 - *Philosophy
- Antiques
- Architecture
- Arts/Crafts
- Behavior
- Business

*Office of Teacher Education and Professional Standings; Department of Education; Concord, New Hampshire - September 1974

- Career Counseling
- Change
- Communication Skills
- Community Involvement
- Computer Programming
- Contracts
- Cooperative & Distributive Education
- Creativity, Creative Expression
- Curriculum
- Day Care
- Decoration/Displays
- Dissemination of Information
- Driver/Safety Education
- Early Childhood
- Educational Materials
- ERIC
- Evaluation/Recording Procedures
- Facilities
- Film Making
- Finance
- First Year Teacher Institutes
- Folklore
- Foreign Languages
- Grouping
- Health
- Home Economics
- Industrial Arts Education
- Information Systems

- Interpersonal Relations
- Language Arts
- Library Services
- Low Income, Disadvantaged, Non-Successful Student
- Mathematics
- Media Equipment
- Models of Teacher Preparation
- Montessori Education
- Motivation
- Needs Assessment
- News Media
- Nursing Education
- Objectives, Instructional
- Organizational Development
- Paraprofessionals
- Parents
- Peer Instruction
- Phonics
- Photography
- Physical Education
- Post-Secondary Education
- Public Relations
- Readiness
- Reading
- Research
- Resource Centers
- School Boards
- Science

- Social Studies
- Social Work
- Special Education
- Team Teaching
- Trades/Industry Education
- Vocational Counseling
- Vocational-Technical Education
- Work-Study Program
- Writing

CONSIDERATIONS FOR USING TEACHERS TO TEACH TEACHERS

Using other teachers to teach teachers may be one of the most effective means of inservice education. However, there are potential pitfalls that can doom any such attempts to failure. Below a few are listed:

1. Peer pressure (and self-imposed pressure) can put teacher instructors in a high-risk position. Ways to minimize these pressures are:
 - a. Use teachers from one school as instructors for another school's faculty.
 - b. Forge a team of instructors so that they can support each other.
 - c. Create an atmosphere of mutual support and sharing which will minimize pressures.
 - d. Use a change of approach - innovate, experiment with new ways of teaching.
2. It is easier for teachers to move from secondary to elementary than vice-versa. Elementary teachers have more experience with method, secondary teachers with content. When exchanging teachers on different levels, focus on common topics.
3. Topics for teacher-led inservice activities must be timely and based on a needs assessment. The teachers participating should agree that there is a need for such an activity.
4. Specialists are often quite willing to become teachers of teachers, the exclusive use of specialists does not encourage other teachers to share their skills. Having regular classroom teachers also instruct specialists on coping with everyday classroom problems might lead to mutual sharing and respect.
5. Using teachers to teach other teachers requires a mention of incentives. A few examples of recognition are:
 - a. A letter of commendation to go into personnel file
 - b. A token stipend
 - c. Mention of services and note of thanks in school newsletter

6. The teacher-instructors themselves can bring problems to their teaching.
 - a. Inappropriate people - not competent or confident teaching adults
 - b. Reluctant instructors
 - c. Failure to ask for help with planning
 - d. Inservice topic not based on real needs
 - e. Lack of leadership or sensitivity to attitude of participants
7. A way to begin such a program of teachers instructing teachers is to use one-to-one contacts or small group sessions at first.
8. The teacher-teaching-teacher model is not easy to establish. A school district or university might do well to provide a course on how to teach teachers or other adults.

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Most educators experienced in planning and implementing inservice programs agree that the most successful activities are school-based and that release time within the school day is the most effective inservice time.

Because managing release time often entails a variety of problems, this section strives to offer a range of possible release time options. In addition, it offers alternative staffing methods that can be used to free teachers for inservice activities.

Since there are some misconceptions among community members about inservice training, it is vital that they clearly understand the benefits of inservice programs. Well informed boards and community members are most likely to support constructive, beneficial inservice activities that require release time.

In summary, the goals of this section are:

1. To show that release time within the school day can be an effective inservice time.
2. To suggest ways of gaining school board and community support for release time.
3. To offer a variety of possible release time options.
4. To show how different staffing methods can be used to release teachers for inservice activities.

RELEASE TIME MODELS

ACTIVITY

PURPOSE:

Those people responsible for the design and implementation of inservice programs should decide upon workable release time models, taking into consideration specific school needs as well as limitations of time, space, and money. This activity structures that task.

PROCEDURE:

This activity is based on brainstorming (see guidelines in the general appendix). Ask the group how many release time alternatives they can think of. Record their responses.

In the appendix at the end of this section is an example of group brainstorming which identifies many release time possibilities. This list may be used to augment the group's findings.

Those people involved in the inservice planning should devote a portion of a planning session to this group brainstorming activity. We suggest that this group brainstorming activity include five to ten people, an inservice coordinator, an administrator and teachers who have been involved in the program being planned.

After brainstorming all possible release time models, the group should discuss and weigh the pro's and con's of each model, choosing the ones which best meet the needs of the program being planned. Pro's and con's should be recorded for the group. An incomplete sample of this process is included in the appendix at the end of this section. It may be used to augment the group discussion. This pro and con exercise can also be done in small buzz groups (rules for buzz groups included in the general appendix) of three to five people. Returning to the large group, each small group should share their list of pro's and con's, combining them into a comprehensive list from which a viable program of inservice release time can be determined.

1. Half day off from school
2. One day off from school
3. End of school day
4. Evenings
5. Afternoon with volunteers supervising activities
6. Periods when various specialists have students
7. Differentiated staffing - aides, interns
8. Substitute teachers - permanent or temporary
9. Sabbatical
10. Early morning
11. Brown bag lunches
12. Special projects that result in release of a few teachers - field trip, sing-a-long, organizational
13. Community group meeting for kids - scouts, 4-H, etc., on one afternoon
14. Paid summer vacation
15. Administrative take-over or school board take-over
16. High school student teaching with a minimum of supervision
17. Teacher exchange - scheduled, unscheduled

RELEASE TIME MODELS

APPENDIX

MODEL	PRO'S	CON'S
1. 1/2 day off from school	-Most work gets done for elementary, some for high school -No extra hours for teachers -Children can plan other activities -If regularly scheduled can be fulfilling -State requires it in some sites	-Busing -Parents have to find babysitters -Attendance decline in high school especially -Coordination with Special Service and Voc. Ed. Programs -Energy level/Is it worth it? -Enrichment activities left out of half-school days
2. 1 day off from school	-Save on transportation -Save on food -Save on heat -Save on staff -More activities can be scheduled	-Children not in school
3. End of school day	-No additional transportation needed -Parents are supportive -Children are in school for full day -A visiting person from another system can come	-Lack of time -Teachers are tired -Hassle for teachers with families
4. Evenings (7-10)	-People can catch their breath	-Night driving -Cuts into a teachers socialization time -Additional heating of facility -Teachers are tired
5. Afternoon with volunteers supervising activities	-Kids get exposure to other people	-Hard to get volunteers -Possible loss of continuity
6. Periods when various specialists have kids	-Kids get enrichment activity -Kids get exposure to other people -No extra time required	-If specialist is out - Who then? -Limited time -Limited number of teachers can be released at same time

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LEA/IHE COLLABORATION

"Inservice must meet minimal requirements of comprehension, coherence, and clarity, including a long-range view of acceptance and commitment from the people involved."

-IHE/LEA Worksession, Teacher Corps
Conference, January 6, 1977

The current changing emphasis from preservice to inservice creates a new climate for positive, innovative interaction between local educational systems and institutions of higher education. The thrust for generating coherent change within our schools can come from a collaboration of IHE (Institutes of Higher Education) and LEA (Local Education Agency), a collaboration based upon trust.

When formulating long-range plans, both the IHE and the LEA should differentiate between substitution and change. Healthy collaboration requires that all parties understand the difference between the substitution of a new educational device for an old one and the kind of systematic change which all institutions require to survive.

Immediate teacher needs stemming from specific problems can be served by



short-range inservice programs. But school systems dedicated to fundamental, systematic improvement need long-range, well thought-out plans for inservice education. If IHEs are to be productively involved in inservice programs for teachers, they must first

identify the human and material resources available through them. As the scope of inservice needs expands, there must be a broader understanding of the possibilities and limitations involved in the relationship between universities and school districts.

School systems have always been transmitters of culture; in today's world, they must be benevolent transformers of society as well. It becomes the role of the school to put students in touch with a continually changing reality. In this context, inservice education becomes a vital process through which teachers and school systems can keep pace with change.

An economically and pedagogically sound collaboration between the IHE and local school districts can produce a positive exchange of benefits. For example, a local school district can field test curriculum materials or serve as a proving ground for new ideas from the IHE, while the university can share emerging knowledge or current research with the local school people. In some instances, local education personnel with specialized expertise could be appointed as adjunct faculty.

IHEs differ, and so does their sense of commitment to inservice training. But, in many universities, the drop in pre-service teacher training has brought with it a new push towards collaboration between IHEs and schools for the improvement of teacher inservice education.

A school community's collaboration with an IHE should emerge from a strong sense of its own identity. A task force should access resources, (including

a university affiliation), establish goals and objectives and assign priorities to them. A task force member should be designated to negotiate with the university, to act as the executive agent of the committee, to carry out decisions of the task force. This person should be a skilled negotiator, with the ability to get people with different talents to work smoothly together.

LEA/IHE COLLABORATION

ACTIVITY

PURPOSE: The intent of this activity is to help LEA/IHE establish the structure and nature of their relationship. Members from the IHE and LEA will meet jointly to formulate a plan.

PROCEDURE: PART I.

Through brainstorming or a flow charting process (see directions for both of these in General Appendices) the group will list activities which will have mutual benefit.

- e.g. -use of student teachers
-IHE led workshops
-IHE field testing in local school district
-etc.

PART II.

Through discussion, decide jointly on how, when, where, by whom, for whom, these activities can best take place. Will credit be given? What are expected results? How will they be evaluated? The resulting IHE/LEA inservice plan should be approved by the group.

IHE/LEA COLLABORATION

EXERCISE

PURPOSE:

This exercise is designed to help the IHE and the LEA match areas of mutual interest and need. A joint group of IHE members and LEA members should participate in this exercise.

PROCEDURE:

Brainstorm a list of disciplines and offerings of the university including talents of professors as well as students. What are the IHE resources which a LEA might use?

Then, post a list of the results of the local school district needs assessment. (See Needs Assessment Section)

Where possible, match school needs, curriculum needs, and individual teacher needs with the resources of the university. This matching process is the initial step in determining possible areas for IHE/LEA collaboration.

IHE/LEA COLLABORATION

EXERCISE

PURPOSE:

The purpose of this exercise is to show one possible area for collaboration between IHE/LEA. A member from the IHE and a member from the LEA task force should meet to engage in the following exercise.

PROCEDURE:

Discuss and list how a university professor might help an individual teacher.

- e.g. 1. One-to-one suggestions on classroom management
- 2. Offering materials and aid through student teacher
- 3. One-to-one help in curriculum development

Discuss and list how a classroom teacher might help a university professor.

- e.g. 1. Field testing IHE-developed curriculum
- 2. Provide a research base for data collection
- 3. Teach appropriate sections of a teacher training course

Once mutual needs have been identified, it will be easy to see teachers and professors in particular areas for the mutual benefit of both. In proposing any such partnerships, the consent of each individual is of paramount importance. Perhaps a single partnership for a trial period would prove to be the best beginning.

Another approach to a partnership is to establish an administrative internship under the supervision of a school principal; the student bridges the gap between IHE and "real world". This is a valuable collaboration. There should be a contracted agreement among the intern, school administration and the institute of higher education.

INSERVICE AND CONTINUING EDUCATION: THE NEED FOR A BETTER MOUSETRAP

by Russell M. Agne and Edward R. Ducharme

Introduction:

For many reasons Inservice and Continuing Education today is experiencing an intensive professional examination unforeseen several years ago. Much of this heightened interest in professional development is a result of a growing desire by teacher organizations to assume a meaningful role in governance of the profession. Such participation had previously been closed to all but state departments of education and higher education. Associated issues related to professional development include: competency-based preparation, governance by consortium, field-based teacher education, teacher centers and renewal sites, and the search for an operational definition of the term "professional". Part of the impetus for the reexamination of Inservice and Continuing Education has come from higher education. Here, schools of education have sought to redirect their substantial human resources toward inservice and graduate education, both in response to a seeking for new markets but also as a result of increased interest and broader sense of responsibility toward the teaching community.

Most inservice and continuing education efforts have been harshly criticized as ineffectual. We believe that, despite an occasional ineffectual past, the time is right for setting a clearer purpose for the lifelong professional training of teachers. University teacher educators must take an assertive

position in this process and provide leadership in addressing major issues. For unless the profession can define a broader social purpose for education, then Inservice and Continuing Education risks becoming obfuscated by a series of consolidation, and which rarely address compelling social and human issues. The university has for too long been a silent partner in this process, responding on cue to an occasionally stated need or majestically offering its view of truth via its prescribed program of study for recertification. Institutional accountability demands a different stance.

The literature on Inservice and Continuing Education is extensive¹ and it is not our purpose to restate the familiar themes of inadequacy. There are, however, some clear directions that we believe the continuing preparation of education professionals should take. Quite simply, our times will not tolerate the often mindless relationships that have existed between school-based (inservice) and university-based (continuing) professional development. In this article we suggest ways of resolving some of the recurring issues in the continuing professional development of teachers. We will suggest that the solutions involve thoughtful combinations of instructional mechanisms, utilizing the best attributes of school and community settings, and the resources available at the universities.

Inservice Education:

J. Alden Vanderpool makes a strong case for doing away with the term, "Inservice." He finds that: "(I)t carries too many negative loadings to be reconceptualized into respectability," and convincingly argues that there is no

definable line between "preservice" and "inservice" as both represent activities on the same continuum.² While we appreciate the cogent arguments for abandonment of the term, we believe that long and popular usage will make the term unlikely to disappear from the professional language. Our definition of Inservice is "Inservice education is employment-oriented education; i.e. site specific training that is designed to meet the needs of a particular school system or community. Here, local education authorities determine their needs and design staff development opportunities accordingly. We agree with the Commission on Education for the Profession of Teaching (CEPT) of The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) that while colleges would still participate regularly in Inservice planning and contribute resources when they are relevant and available, the primary role of higher education in the Inservice process is "to prepare public school personnel competent to carry out assignments and research basic to such programming."³ Quite simply, "home-grown" but university-assisted talent should be used in the design and execution of Inservice training programs. The CEPT report further recommended that school systems become the chief locus for Inservice Education in order to keep this phase of staff development maximally responsive to school and community needs.⁴ We support this relationship.

Inservice work takes enormous amounts of time for many university based educators. For those faculty striving to meet the academy's three performance criteria of teaching, research, and service, time in the field has come to mean working with schools and communities on a plethora of staff development activities. Within recent weeks our colleagues have

been invited to "perform" before teachers, administrators, and children on such topics as career education, converting to the metric system, implementing a sex education program, establishing a PPSS management system, training for intercultural needs, choosing a science and environmental education curriculum, designing an individualized reading program, speaking to the problem of discipline, running an after-school recreation program for primary grade children, and leading values clarification workshops. This listing is by no means exhaustive, but rather illustrates the diverse nature of the requests being made by schools and communities. Sometimes for public relations, and often for consulting fees, college and university personnel respond to such opportunities with missionary zeal.

Whenever there is an inconsistent mix of university work with school districts as part of regular faculty load and consultant help from university faculty paid by the district, confusion exists. The paid consultant is clearly from the university; quite clearly he or she does not represent it. Inevitable misunderstandings about motive and power occur. In the long run, school districts and communities, the university, and consulting faculty lose, for there is no long-term development of role and relationships.

The usual university response to client needs is shortsighted. Moreover, wrongs are perpetrated on the requesting school or community agency, and on the obliging university or faculty member. A closer examination of the typical model of Inservice Education just described, which finds all parties culpable, will provide a basis for our later recommendation for the establishment of a lifelong professional education program.

Inservice Failures:

The strained relationships that often develop between the university and schools surrounding Inservice Education are easy to identify but extremely difficult to resolve. The following proclivities, based upon our research, illuminate why collaborative attempts have floundered. Later, we will propose a corrective model for the inservice phase of continuing professional development which will acknowledge the reality of these conditions.

The public fails to comprehend the structure of the university, particularly its value and reward system. Schools and communities often look to tax-supported higher education to provide high quality service as specific needs emerge. They are often frustrated by the apparent inability of the university to give sustained support following its enthusiastic initial participation. As the AACTE's report, Educating a Profession, has pointed out, most education faculty spend a larger portion of their work load engaged in service to field constituents than do personnel in other colleges, with the exception of colleges of agriculture.⁵ As our service is frequently offered without charge, calls for its expansion make serious demands on already limited resources. All too often, teaching loads do not adequately factor in time spent in off-campus activities. Such work, plus professional research and writing time, comes "out of the hides" of faculty. School people respond to this with the understanding expressed by: "That's your problem - resolve it at the university!" When community service is mandated by the university for its reward and promotional procedures, one can expect that faculty will seek to meet that evaluation criterion by spending some time in the field.

It must also be added that universities often fail to understand their own structure and purpose. Operating from a perhaps antiquated set of priorities, they often neglect communicating these priorities to faculty. Under present conditions, faculty must allocate their time based on informal criteria devised by the university and they are not usually able to volunteer time without careful consideration of the personal consequences. The university must assume public responsibility and relate faculty assignments accordingly.

The inservice planning and resources of the schools are woefully inadequate, while the university, for its part, has invested little effort in designing workable collaborative arrangements. It certainly comes as no surprise that most school systems give relatively low priority to inservice programs. A broadly representative survey of teacher opinion found inservice education to be inadequate, but also determined that teachers, nevertheless, wanted quality Inservice Education. Further analysis found state-approval programs for Inservice Education to be weak and sketchy or non-existent.⁶ Our investigations have led us to the same conclusion reached by Edelfelt and Lawrence; namely, that most Inservice Education programs neither extend preservice frameworks nor have frameworks of their own.⁷ In our view, the occasional university involvement in inservice efforts have too often been an unthinking participation in programs that are poorly designed, inadequately funded, seek more than they can deliver, and simply reinforce the prevalent teacher attitude that inservice efforts have little influence on their professional lives.

The university must respond more effectively to the needs of its constituents.

Teacher education programs must view themselves as the training arm of the profession and demonstrate leadership. Our proposal calls for a group "In-service Education Associates" who must be prepared to work with school districts, communities, teacher associations, and - increasingly - teacher centers. But the university must be certain about what its strengths and resources are. More and more local resources are correctly being used for specific local needs; the university is no longer the only game in town.

There are, however, things that the university can provide in better quality than most other groups or individuals. Among these are accessibility to emerging knowledge and recent research, evaluation strategies and skills, human relations training, core discipline expertise of a scholarly nature, and other resources. It probably is not the best source of training and information on the linkages of some community resources. The delicate line for the university is that between real skill and veneer-level information masked as a resource.

Both the university and the schools have parasitized each other's resources in ways that demonstrate acute insensitivity to each other's needs. This regrettable situation is not so much a willful act by individuals as it is a result of organizational pressures and relationships. Public schools and their administrators naturally try to get the most value from their region's college or university, while the faculty member is rewarded for responses to field constituency. Too often, inservice programs grow out of such considerations as: (a) who's available? (b) who receives enthusiastic reviews? and (c) what educational topics are au courant? - rather than originating in the needs of the classroom and community. Sharing the blame for this mindless

exploitation of human resources are university faculty who respond to inservice invitations for the personal-institutional rewards. They fail to engage in the collaborative planning with teachers, administrators, and community representatives which is needed to bring about the educational ends sought by the school or community. Faculty know that many inservice programs are poorly designed and will be criticized by teachers, yet they perform the service anyway - probably with the not unreasonable belief that if they do not someone else will! While understandable, this view is not professional.

A Proposed University Response to Inservice Education:

Several actions seem appropriate for improving the quality of the university's response to its field constituency. The improved relationship that all seek can begin to emerge from the recognition of the several circumstances just illuminated. The following assertions will serve as a prelude to our recommendations for restructuring the university-school interface:

- (a) Inservice work, when properly conducted, makes a definite contribution to the school and community served. It should be encouraged by proper calculation in teaching load, and valued in the university's reward procedures; e.g. salary and promotion.
- (b) Not all faculty are equally suited to function in a school or community setting. Some have skills that are best utilized in areas apart from the field. Institutional pressures to force field work on everyone may prove counterproductive, and hence should not be employed.
- (c) Research shows that inservice programs work best when they involve practicing teachers from the community served in both planning and training. Efforts should be made to design strong teacher involvement into the presentation of inservice programming.
- (d) Significant amounts of time must be invested by faculty engaging in a particular inservice project. Much effort will be required in: getting to know the school or community setting; examining

the design and objectives of the project; negotiating modifications, if appropriate. One of the causes of past failures has been the too facile assumption by university faculty that they can quickly move in and out of a university or school setting without any study or significant preparation. Such behavior, in the long run, is condescending.

- (e) More requests for collaboration with field constituents will be received than can possibly be accommodated. Criteria for field involvement need to be developed and publicly shared.
- (f) Colleges and universities often agree to participate in inservice ventures even when they lack the human resources to do so. This practice must stop and greater effort made to locate more suitable assistance from other sources. The university must acknowledge limitations to its expertise.

The Model:

We offer here a model for pedagogically and fiscally sound collaboration between the college/university and schools/communities. University budgets have historically ignored, or at best depreciated, the contribution made by teacher educators in schools and communities. We have failed to make a case for the legitimacy of field work to our client group, and have thus been poorly funded by our institutions. While many well-reasoned arguments can be advanced to preclude its use, the proposed structure directs needed attention to the abuses in inservice relationships described earlier.

The establishment of an "Inservice Education Associates" is proposed as a realistic way of acknowledging the professional concerns of all affected by Inservice Education - both in schools and in higher education. The essence of our suggestion is the bringing together of college and university faculty possessing a varied repertoire of skills which they agree to make

available to the "Center for Inservice Education." This structure is in some ways analogous to the "Associates in Medicine" organization utilized at medical schools where teacher-practitioners incorporate to provide the public with access to teams of specialists. In our model, work for the Center would be part of the contractual teaching load and monies received from schools and communities would not go to faculty members as consulting income but would be used to further the work of the Center. Such income would, more importantly perhaps, be used by the institution to fund the fractional equivalents of faculty time spent working for the Center.

We believe that careful management decisions must be made whenever requests for inservice assistance are received. It should be clear that coordination of the higher education effort is necessary if the desire to improve the inservice component of our profession is to be taken seriously. The virtues of a systematic approach are: articulation of currently disparate efforts; insuring that individual faculty are not overwhelmed; discouragement of last minute requests for help; capability of selecting the most appropriate individual for the task; structured opportunity for feedback on the quality of the service provided; potential planning instructional approaches through a team approach; utilizing talent available throughout the institution; opportunity for graduate student participation in the planning, delivery and evaluation of the services provided by the Center; convincing accounting of the strong-public service function of the education unit for central administration.

The suggestion for a coordinated inservice effort at the university under a management system will not win instant university acceptance. The tradition of outside consulting work is strong at the academy, and it is doubtful that

the Center would eliminate this opportunity for salary supplement. The decision on whether to participate in the work of the Center should be largely left to the individual faculty member. Some may choose to have a reduced formal class teaching load and work for the Center to complete their schedules, while others may wish to meet the customary teaching obligation and freelance in their consulting work - leaving work with "Inservice Education Consultants" to their colleagues.

Perhaps the greatest obstacle in establishing the utility of our model is the presence of "Superstars" on faculties. These highly talented individuals receive lucrative rewards for their work and thus see no personal advantage to the design we propose. While their contributions could be well utilized by the Center, it is only realistic to assume that they will continue to operate in the private consulting sphere. At some point, and now may be as good a time as any, the university will have to decide whether or not it will continue to sanction or ignore substantial consultant activity. Some faculty clearly capitalize on their university association to develop paid consultancies, yet will not as part of their regular university assignment accept field-based work. The university world is one of both diminishing resources and growing responsibilities. This tension probably can not tolerate the unchecked growth of the entrepreneurial spirit in an age of service.

The concept of an administrative structure for Inservice Education at the university will also evoke strong reactions from the client - schools and communities. Serious questions will undoubtedly arise around such issues as: the need for new administrative channels for securing inservice

assistance; the costs that must be negotiated; decisions on who will perform the work may not be solely the prerogative of the client; the process may not proceed along the timeline available; and the requirement of collaborative design, delivery, and evaluation of the services provided. These concerns can be made less troublesome as the positive aspects of our proposal become clear. The potential is strong for the development of an inservice strategy which is sensitive to the abuses of the past and which, through cooperative design and delivery, meets the requirements of the school or community.

Beyond Inservice Training:

In Educating a Profession, the AACTE's Commission on Education For the Profession of Teaching (CEPT) used the term "Continuing Education" to refer to "activities designed to supplement and extend the preservice education of teachers, and to update them on recent findings and approaches." Also, by their definition, "Inservice Education" is merely one aspect of continuing education and involves "those activities which have as their intended purpose preparation for specific demands which decisions within the system have created." ⁹ The authors believe that continuing professional development reaches far beyond the meeting of specific school system needs through Inservice Education: "Its function is the development of professional teacher-scholars, capable of high levels of diagnosis and prescription; coordinating the instructional efforts of other professional and paraprofessional associates; and exercising leadership in school, community, and the profession." ¹⁰ They concluded that while the chief responsibility for this continuing professional development rests with

the individual teacher and the organized profession, the graduate programs of colleges and universities will probably remain as the vehicle for carrying out professional development objectives.^{11.}

We hope that the profession can avoid an unfortunate dichotomy between Inservice Education (largely the domain of schools and communities) and continuing education (tending to be university bases). Both are substantive components of lifelong professional development - picking up where undergraduate preparation has left off. Each responds to a different aspect of professional growth. We are concerned, however, that inservice education with its site-specific focus risks excluding opportunities for university based learning. Teacher organizations, now seeking rightful partnership in recertification procedures, must particularly be sensitive to the need for multidimensional professional development.

Robert J. Nash and Edward R. Ducharme have identified four areas in which the university makes an essential contribution to continuing professional development. First, the university is a center for Intellectual Reflection. Here, educators return to the university to reflect intellectually on what they are doing professionally and why they are doing it. Such opportunity satisfies a human urge for "powerful distractors in a world of almost total professional preoccupation." Second, it is a center for Research and Evaluation, where significant questions can be formulated and educators can learn the art and science of scholarly investigation and inquiry. The third center is for Personal Support and Growth, where it functions, "not as a monastic retreat from a troublesome world, but as a revitalization center where emotional and spiritual commitments can be redefined and strengthened."

The fourth center is that for Learning New Skills. Nash and Ducharme argue that it is simply inconceivable that the humanistic, system-disturbing, and reforming skills needed to achieve larger societal ideals and purposes can be achieved while training is located exclusively in the public schools.¹² We are not saying that significant training does not occur in the public schools; rather, we are saying that certain kinds of training is not likely to occur in the world where the day-to-day work pace is the dominate image.

Conclusion:

We have identified some of the issues central to the conduct of Inservice and Continuing Education. It is our belief that higher education has a long history of responding in haphazard ways to calls for Inservice Education, and has failed to set performance standards for faculty involvement in this process. The demands of the education professional today mandate a calculated integration of field and campus-based continuing education. This new synthesis is most likely to come about through a recognition of the inadequacies of prior explorative models of inservice work and by capitalizing on the unique capabilities of the academy. In summary, most efforts at Inservice and Continuing Education have been mediocre. Colleges of education must develop systematic strategies to provide better support for their field constituency.

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FUNDING FOR INSERVICE EDUCATION

Inservice activities cost money. There are the direct program costs with which most of us are familiar -- such as speakers, refreshments, or books. But there are also indirect costs which are easy to overlook, including substitute pay, salary increments for advanced credits, or perhaps just teacher time and energy. A good inservice plan must consider all kinds of costs -- direct and indirect -- in the inservice plan. This section will deal first with the various costs connected with inservice education and then with some guidelines for planning for funding of effective programs.

Good inservice needs steady sources of funding. There are, unfortunately, limited sources of new money for teacher inservice education. Therefore, while we encourage local school districts to look for outside sources of money and to expand the amount spent on inservice education, the major thrust of this section will be on reallocation of presently available funds.

INFORMAL/IMBEDDED INSERVICE PROGRAMS

Such programs start within schools; they are planned and often operated by teachers. While the activities are informal (e.g. teacher visits to other classrooms, faculty meetings, skill development) the objectives are highly specific and directed at immediate teacher needs, usually with high and immediate impact on the teaching. Teachers are always very much in control of such activities.



FORMAL/EXTERNAL INSERVICE PROGRAMS

These activities are usually highly planned, involve large groups of teachers, usually in formal activities which preclude discussion of specific needs of individual teachers. Examples include outside speakers, perhaps a national authority on some critical educational area; a series of workshops specifically designed for a teacher group but led by a university expert. Teachers exercise less control over these kinds of activities and there may be a less direct connection to faculty problems or learning objectives. Implementation schemes remain the responsibility of teachers after the course or lecture or other activity has ended.

INSTITUTIONAL/DETACHED INSERVICE PROGRAMS

Programs in this category include college or university courses, off-campus programs, or special (perhaps weekend) workshops delivered by external organizations. Usually, objectives are set and activities designed by the instructor with very little input by participants. No immediate connection is attempted with the school site; teachers usually attend as individuals rather than as members of a school group. Participants have no control over the nature of the activity. This analysis is admittedly broad, but it permits some interesting statements about the funding of inservice programs. First, the literature is beginning to contain clear evidence that inservice programs are most successful when teachers are most in control of both planning and delivering inservice programs tailored to meet specific needs. Further, such teacher-controlled activities are considerably less

expensive than those for formal or institutional programs. More money does not necessarily mean more learning.

This sketchy analysis suggests some critical questions an inservice planner may want to ask when looking at funding issues:

- *Are we selecting an inservice program which is formal and expensive when an informal/embedded program would do the job?
- *Are we looking for outside resources before we consider what we already have?
- *Would we have a stronger overall inservice program if we emphasized less formal, more teacher-cooperative activities?

The problem of scarce resources may be partially solved without sacrificing effectiveness if we try to focus on informal, school-based activities rather than concentrating on highly visible but detached events.

FUNDING FOR INSERVICE EDUCATION

SOME ISSUES IN FUNDING INSERVICE EDUCATION

Funding, when viewed in perspective, can become less a deterrent to the planning of effective inservice programs. Money is necessary, but by beginning with solidly defined objectives for the total school faculty, it is possible to develop and choose alternatives which meet restrictions imposed by budget realities.

There are still several areas of concern in funding inservice teacher education. It is worth noting a few of these:

INADEQUATE DATA BASE

At present there is no clear evidence on reasonable costs for inservice education related to specific objectives of faculty groups. Guidelines for planning are simply not available. This is especially true for the indirect results of inservice expenditures. While some procedures for planning are included in this section, the inservice planning group will find little well-evaluated previous experience to guide its actions.

REALLOCATION OF FUNDS

A careful analysis of present spending in the school and district may indicate that presently available funds may be reallocated to support inservice activities. Some guidelines for thinking about this problem are presented in this section. Reallocation is important, not only because funds are scarce, but also because many activities

presently in use do not contribute to school objectives for improved student learning.

HIGH PAYOFF/INFORMAL ACTIVITIES

Some evidence is beginning to accumulate indicating that simple internal delivery systems have a greater ability to achieve objectives than sophisticated outside programs. This seems to result from teachers feeling that they have the power to shape programs to meet their needs. The inservice planner should carefully consider whether the funds available are facilitating teacher control or whether additional funds for sophisticated activities will inhibit this control and thus reduce the payoff.

HUMAN POTENTIAL MODELS

Should a school district provide funds for inservice at all? This question should not be an issue. No one questions the regular maintenance of school buses or other equipment. Inservice education programs provide "regular maintenance" for professional staff by providing a forum for the exchange of new ideas, a way of developing new teaching skills, a place to communicate and share with others. Teacher obsolescence is prevented by continuing provision for individual growth and development. This approach to inservice education is often called the Human Potential Model. The inservice planner could find developing such a model, based on specific district or school needs, very useful in justifying funds for inservice education programs, especially long-term projects.

HIGHER FUNDS/HIGHER PAYOFF

Although increased funding is not always the key to better inservice programs, more money can certainly add many new activities and expand the range of incentives. Careful planning of activities should include a strong justification for whatever funding is required. The planner must be clear on the objectives of the proposed program, and able to show what important values will be maintained and promoted. This kind of analysis may indicate that carefully planned activities, using funds reallocated from less useful ones, can make some relatively expensive programs possible while the search for new money continues.

FUNDING FOR INSERVICE EDUCATION

DETERMINING THE COST EFFECTIVENESS OF INSERVICE PROGRAMS

The school staff should examine the cost-effectiveness of inservice programs. To do this, they estimate the overall cost of an inservice program, and then separate out costs which may be attributed to the inservice activities that grow out of local school staff needs and are directly related to the quality of inservice available to children. The bulk of the inservice expenditure should support these activities. The worksheet which follows will help in that determination. If these expenditures turn out to be only a small percentage of the total costs for inservice education, the district has probably failed to develop a program directly linked to school goals and the needs of the staff.

It is not feasible, at this time, to specify what percentage of inservice education money should go to activities which grow out of site-specific concerns. However, it seems reasonable to suggest that at least half of the total program costs should be for activities which directly address the needs of the school staff and the goals and objectives of the district. Those items are starred (*) in the last column entitled: "Change \$+/-".

FUNDING FOR INSERVICE EDUCATION

WORKSHEET TO DETERMINE ALLOCATION OF INSERVICE FUNDS

ITEM EXPLANATION

1. Reimbursement to staff members for course tuition and costs for university courses.
2. Reimbursement for costs incurred through other inservice projects (conferences, institutes, workshops, research, etc.)
3. Stipends paid directly to teachers for inservice participation.
4. Inservice project costs such as workshop materials, facility space, heat, lighting, custodial service, coffee, etc...
5. Clerical costs which are directly traceable to inservice (e.g. dissemination of information, collecting recertification data, etc.)
6. Consultant costs - outside the district and from within the district.
7. Travel expenses for consultants and/or teachers to and from inservice activities.
8. Per diem pay directly to teachers for "one shot" participation in inservice activities of their choice.
9. Superintendent's days - what are the actual costs incurred by using such days when the students are released and teachers have requirements to fulfill.
10. Teacher controlled professional days - what are the costs incurred through use of these days where students are released and teachers engage in their own inservice activities.
11. Substitute pay - only that portion of substitute pay which releases teachers for inservice activities.
12. Professional salaries - that portion of salaries traceable directly to staff development. Possibly the total salary of an inservice coordinator or portion of a principal's salary or a teacher's salary. Criteria for determining this item needs to be developed (e.g. what portion of the individual's school day can be attributed to staff development?)
13. Salary increments from inservice education. This cost is difficult to determine and requires considerable research through personnel files to be fairly accurate.

14. Individual "out of pocket" expenses for inservice activities may include a rough estimate of course tuitions, travel, personal-professional library, etc.
15. Sabbatical leave - cost for actual leave.
16. Vouchers from an institute of higher education to a local education agency - sometimes vouchers from the institute of higher education are pooled into a teacher center which can provide inservice activities with university credit.
17. Vouchers from an institute of higher education to individuals. Institutes of higher education often give course or credit vouchers to master teachers for overseeing student interns.
18. Salary of aides - the portion of which can be directly traced to release time for teacher inservice activities.
19. Savings from volunteers being used to release teachers for inservice projects.
20. Planning time - the cost of planning time given to teachers. This item might already be included in items 12, 18 or 19.
21. Cost of evaluation of inservice activities. This item may also already be included in item 12.
22. Other - any other inservice costs incurred by the school.
23. Funds from other school budget sources. (To consider when reallocating inservice money for the next year.)
24. Funds made available through alternative patterns of staffing - by other uses of master teachers, aides, interns, teaching assistants, volunteers, and team teaching release time for teachers can be more readily found. Also, better use of student teachers can increase the total of institute of higher education vouchers to individuals and the total school.
25. Elimination of wasteful purchase decisions - by including teachers in all purchase decisions, much waste in supplies, materials, textbooks, etc., can be eliminated.
26. Other - Are there other sources from which inservice funds can be reallocated?

*These items are to be considered as places where reallocation or increased funds would be most effective in improving the total inservice program.

FUNDING FOR INSERVICE EDUCATION

WORKSHEET TO DETERMINE ALLOCATION OF INSERVICE FUNDS

✓) Check if these inservice funding resources occur in your school or school districts.

ITEM	PRESENT ALLOCATION			REALLOCATION			CHANGE +/-
	Annual Estimated Costs Budgeted (Direct)	Hidden (Indirect)	TOTAL	Annual Estimated Costs Budgeted (Direct)	Hidden (Indirect)	TOTAL	
✓ 1 Reimbursement for IHE course tuition							1
2 Reimbursement for individual inservice projects							2*
3 Stipends							3
4 Inservice Project Costs							4*
5 Clerical Costs							5
6 Consultant Costs for inservice							6
7 Travel Expenses for inservice							7
8 Per diem-teachers for inservice							8
9 Superintendent Days							9
10 Teacher controlled professional days							10*
11 Substitute Pay							11*
12 Professional Salaries							12*
172 13 Salary Increments from inservice							13 173

14 Individual "out-of-pocket" expenses							14	
15 Sabbatical Leave							15	
16 Vouchers from IHEs to individuals							16	
17 Vouchers from IHE to LEA							17	
18 Salary of Aides							18*	
19 Savings from use of volunteers							19*	
20 Cost of planning time							20*	
21 Cost of evaluation							21*	
22 Other							22	
23 Funds from other school budget sources							23*	
24 Funds made available through alternate staffing and better use of vouchers from IHEs							24*	
25 Elimination of wasteful purchase decisions							25*	
26 Other								
174								175

Possible sources of new money include:

1. Federal Funds - Educational Funding News - Educational Funding Research Council; 752 National Press Building, N. W.; Washington, D. C. 20045
(202) 737-4700

2. State Funds

NOTE: Most federal and state funds are categorical and short term. These limitations make it difficult for sustained district planning. Go only for funds which fit your district needs.

3. Business and Industry (probably in relation to Vocational Education)
4. Revision of state or local funding formulas

NOTE: Washington State increases state aid to towns based on years of faculty teaching experience. Florida provides \$5 per student for inservice teacher education.

5. Foundation grants - The Foundation Directory, Edition 5; Compiled by the Foundation Center, New York 1975
6. Other funding ideas - Teacher Center Exchange; Kathleen Devaney, Lorraine Thorn; Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development; 1855 Folsom St.; San Francisco, California 94103 (415) 565-3097/3101

FINANCING INSERVICE EDUCATION - A DIALOGUE

A State Education Department View

by

Mike Van Ryn, New York State Education Department

and

A Teacher Union View

by

Charles Santelli, New York State United Federation of Teachers

The financing of inservice education can be divided into two major issues - those dealing with the revenues and those dealing with expenditures. Both are part of the financial structure of inservice education and may or may not relate to each other.

Most of the literature in the field of financing inservice education is descriptive, usually of a particular type of program or delivery system. We have chosen a sequential question and answer format since we have not been given a specific structure or program to finance but were given the charge of examining the financing in general. We have also chosen this approach because of the large number of issues which will be raised on which neither the State Education Department nor the New York State United Teachers have public policy statements. This approach will allow each of us to conjecture as to the position of current policy into this new field without establishing policy. It also allows each of us to answer separately since there are many issues on which we believe our organizations (the State Education Department and the New York State United Teachers) will differ.

PART I

1. Can college and university funds be reallocated to inservice education?

Van Ryn: Most independent institutions' programs are funded through tuition and through endowments. I cannot see how that sector of the higher education community would be willing or able to reallocate funds that are now used to provide services to people who attend their institutions. On the other hand, it is conceivable that public institutions which are largely, although not exclusively, funded by public funds, would be able to employ staff for the specific purpose of providing instruction to inservice teachers who attend the institution or work in schools or regional sites. Each institution might assign a certain number of full-time equivalent faculty whose responsibility would be to provide inservice education through varying kinds of consultant and instructional services to school personnel. With the decline in the number of students expressing an interest in preservice education such a reallocation of collegiate staff for inservice education purposes may be fairly easy to accomplish and not call for an increase in instructional costs at the higher education institutions.

Santelli: There are two ways in which college and university program funds can be reallocated in the area of inservice education. One way would be to redirect the monies that are currently being spent on undergraduate training programs which may no longer be needed considering the supply and demand statistics on education. The second area could be to employ university personnel in a consulting capacity. By this I mean colleges and universities should offer specialized consulting services to school districts to assist them in solving problems of training and techniques and also help teachers and administrators and school board members provide better services to students.

2. Can current inservice education monies fund new inservice programs?

Santelli: Current inservice programs, although very meagerly funded by most school districts in this country, can possibly be a source of funds. Current programs are generally of a short-term nature, are disparate and disjointed and generally have no long-range goals. One example of this in New York State is the Superintendent's Conference Day. Although three days per year can be utilized for Superintendent's Day conferences, reports from the State Education Department indicate that less than half of the school districts request the Superintendent's Days and, of that, most don't utilize all three days. This is not primarily due to the fact that the school administrators and teachers don't want inservice education programs, but their experiences have been negative and they do not desire to endure more of the same. It takes much time, effort, and money to develop a good inservice program. Planning, especially joint planning including the teachers and administrators and school boards, has been lacking in inservice education.

Van Ryn: Our data clearly indicates that the actual amount of dollars expended for inservice education in local districts in New York and elsewhere is quite insignificant. In New York City and Buffalo, only 45% of the local districts employing 89% of the teaching staff reported that they had expended money for inservice education purposes in the 1974-75 academic year. Moreover, the average statewide per capita expenditure by local districts for inservice education was \$18.70 with the range being from \$4.78 in one region of the State to \$61.61 in the region with the highest per capita expenditure.

One can question, however, whether or not even those minimal funds that are going into inservice education are having a significant impact. I tend to agree with Chuck about the fragmented and disparate aspects of the current inservice education programs. The disenchantment with much of what passes for inservice education today has caused school boards, administrators, teacher organizations, or State legislators to question whether even those limited amounts of dollars should be expended. Moreover, when you are confronted, as many districts are, with serious fiscal problems, and inservice education is not seen as a great priority it is frequently either curtailed or totally eliminated. Frankly, monies that are available for inservice education programs can be reallocated. However, I do think that even those monies, as small as they might be, could be put to better use if more time were expended on the part of school staffs to design programs that were really relevant to their needs.

3. Can current funds used to pay teachers for inservice be used for new inservice education programs?

Van Ryn: I think consideration of money paid to teachers for participating in inservice education is one of the thorniest issues. The amount of money expended for this purpose over time is generally a great deal more than most people are aware of. It seems to me that the dollars spent for rewarding personnel to participate in inservice education might be better spent in different ways. Giving credit to a teacher which is applicable to a salary schedule for the length of his or her service, both in a particular school district as well as, with increasing frequency, in other districts results in significant amounts of money spent. I think the alternatives to giving people salary credit have been sufficiently explored and for purposes of discussion at least, I would like to identify a few of these.

In thinking of alternatives, let's start with the supposition that there should be rewards or incentives for people to participate in inservice education. However, districts need to review their policies of accepting or subsidizing all activities now classified as inservice education. In the process of this review, I believe it will be necessary for school officials, in conjunction with representatives of teacher organizations, to delineate criteria for inservice education activities that are worthy of rewards. It is my opinion that a mutually agreed upon incentive system might be evolved, whereby school personnel would be eligible for extrinsic rewards when their participation in inservice education is: 1) directly related

to their current or future job responsibilities, and 2) focused upon improving the educational services available to students.

Let me now get specific and identify some alternative reward structures that might be considered. I cite these in no particular order nor am I suggesting that it is impossible to consider some variation or combination of these.

1. Release Time

School staff might be released from on-job responsibilities to participate in inservice education activities. Their classroom and other responsibilities would be assumed by substitutes. Flexible scheduling practices and appropriate utilization of community resource personnel could allow the periodic release of segments of the school staff without a detrimental effect on pupils.

2. Stipends

A stipend could be awarded to staff for participating in inservice education activities. Stipends might be based on the number of hours, courses, workshops, or seminars involved. Stipends need not become part of a teacher's base salary and need not be considered for fringe benefit purposes.

3. Integrated Program

Inservice education programs could be incorporated into the ongoing school program and calendar as an alternative to reimbursing staff on an extra basis for their participation. School staffs could engage in an inservice program each year as an integral part of their contractual obligation and professional responsibility.

4. Integrated Salary Increments

Salary schedules based on years of service are well established in a number of states. It may be desirable to tie participation in inservice education to vertical movement on the salary schedule. Instead of granting automatic salary increments based exclusively on years of service, it may be appropriate to grant increments based in part on participation in inservice education. Thus, staff wishing to move from one rung of the salary schedule to another would need to involve themselves in inservice education programs, as well as to serve in a particular position for a specified length of time.

5. Inservice Fiscal Benefits

It may be appropriate to place a time restriction on financial remuneration than to award salary credits indefinitely. For

example, a district might consider awarding a certain dollar amount for a three or five month period. In this way, a district would not continue paying staff for inservice education they participated in many years before. Moreover, if the "bonus" awards are separate from teachers' salaries, fringe benefit costs would not increase and administration would be relatively easy.

6. "Banking" Credits

It may be feasible to credit inservice education participants with a limited amount of dollars rather than to reimburse staff directly through salary credits or stipends. These "credit dollars" could be used to purchase such items as clerical or paraprofessional assistance, additional instructional materials, library materials, substitute time, or other services and materials agreed upon by school personnel. Although this system might take time to establish and administer, it might reap rich rewards by enhancing educational services to students.

7. Intangible Incentives

It may be appropriate to offer incentives other than the current financial ones for inservice education. Such incentives might include: assigning a student teacher, seeing that teachers receive local press coverage for their accomplishments, enabling staff to attend conferences, and affording extra visitation days.

Santelli: I disagree with Mike that money paid to teachers for inservice credit is a theory issue. It is not a thorny issue - it is a very clear-cut issue. The issue is whether or not a person ought to be rewarded for taking additional work which would make him more proficient in his classroom. For many years the chief motivation for inservice education on the part of many teachers has been upward mobility into the administrative ranks. With the currently sluggish economy and the decline in school enrollments, this avenue of so-called "upward mobility" doesn't exist any longer. Since most of us reject differentiated staffing schemes, the only way that a teacher can really be rewarded for completing work in an inservice program is to receive extra money for it. All of the other items which Mike has mentioned can probably be accommodated in an inservice program and can be channeled into some form of remuneration for the teacher. I think that it is grossly unfair to expect teachers to work in an inservice course which makes them more proficient in their job and not be remunerated for that experience. I also feel that we're trying to rob Peter to pay Paul when we take monies that are currently spent on inservice education in the form of rewards to teachers and channel those monies into programs whose quality is still dubious. I think that the teachers will probably look unfavorably upon inservice education under these conditions, and in fact it may be a deterrent to marketing inservice education programs. The validity and effectiveness of these inservice programs are not the issues when you're telling people that we're going to take money out of their pockets in order to finance the programs.

attend schools for a specified period of time. Hence, the responsibility to maintain an effective teaching force rests, in my opinion, with the public. It is in the public interest that school districts have the best-prepared staff possible. Therefore, I believe it is public obligation to enable school staffs to maintain and improve their competence. To assume that teachers, either as individuals or through their organizations, should be solely responsible for maintaining their competence is unreasonable.

I would, however, add one additional comment about those who participate in inservice activities as a means to pursue an alternative career pattern. In those cases I believe it becomes the individual's responsibility to assume the cost as I don't think the public should support an individual who wishes to make a career change.

Santelli: The quickest way to bury inservice education for at least a decade is to have the participants finance inservice education. Teachers would feel misused and outraged that they would have to contribute to providing the kinds of inservice education that would enable them to meet school district and state goals. I agree substantially with Mike's statement that the public should bear the major responsibility for funding inservice programs. Many industries such as the telephone companies don't turn all of the people who have been employed by them for ten or fifteen years into the streets and hire a whole new group of people when they put new equipment into their industry. They retrain their employees; it's a company responsibility and it is accomplished on company time. I think that this kind of a model has to be examined for its applicability in the field of education.

6. Can local schools fund inservice education?

Santelli: Currently, local school districts do not have sufficient operating funds to sustain adequate programs. It is difficult to envision channeling new monies that would be funding school programs into inservice education without the teachers and the parents feeling its impact. There are some state schemes, such as in Florida, where a certain per capita amount of money is apportioned to a school district and must be spent on inservice education. However, when one gets into a situation like we find ourselves in New York City, where there are 30, 40 and 50 children in a classroom with no art, music, physical education or guidance program, it's a crime to expect that a new funding formula, that doesn't adequately fund education, will fund inservice education for teachers.

The disparities in school funding between rich districts and poor districts will further discriminate against the poorer children of the country if inservice education is funded by the local district. If a wealthy district wants an inservice education program they can afford it. If a poorer district wants an inservice education program, they generally can't afford it. The result is that school districts with large numbers of disadvantaged students, economically poor students, and students with other kinds of learning problems are not financially able to provide the kinds of programs that the teachers want.

Van Ryn: I agree that it would be difficult at this time to suggest that local schools come up with additional monies for the express purpose of

The alternative rewards structures that Mike mentions have a recurring theme - "get teachers to fund inservice education." Why should paying teachers more money on the salary schedule be an objectionable practice? Some may argue that it's the only way that inservice will be funded. If this is true, then it will be the first time that we will woo teachers to participate in inservice education by beating them over the head with fiscal gimmickry.

The citizens of our nation spent more money on tobacco, booze, and eating in restaurants than on all education. We spent more money on leisure time activities and vacations than on education. And now, because we face a tough fight for money for education we're turning to the teachers to once again subsidize education. It is not going to happen.

4. Can current district funds be channeled into inservice education?

Santelli: The sluggish economy and the dwindling resources for education present a significant roadblock to attempts to divert monies which are currently funding programs to enable children to learn, into inservice education. One argument in favor of diverting some of these monies is on the basis that a better prepared teacher will enable children to learn. However, in many situations, the funding of the school district programs is so inadequate that channeling monies from the operating budget of the school into inservice education programs would mean denying children supplies, overcrowding their classrooms, even more than they are currently, reducing security forces, reducing teacher aides and eliminating innovative programs. I don't think that the public or the profession are willing to make those kinds of sacrifices for inservice education programs, especially since there aren't any inservice education programs that have received universal acceptance on the part of the profession.

Van Ryn: I agree with much of what Chuck has said in regard to trying to divert or reallocate funds presently being expended for the instructional and other supportive services for K-12 programs to inservice education. I do have one minor caveat, or a comment with regard to that. Where school districts try to initiate new programs, they make an error if the staff has not been adequately prepared. So while I don't have a basic argument with Chuck's notion of not diverting funds from present programs, I would say that, if school districts are about to install new programs, some program funds should be used for inservice programs. Otherwise funds expended for the installation of programs can be dissipated to the disadvantage of both the professional staff and the youngsters in the program.

5. Can the participants in inservice education pay for programs?

Van Ryn: It can be argued that the responsibility for maintenance and improvement of competence rests with the individual teacher. This contention is perhaps more seductive than ever before, due to the improved salaries earned by teachers, but it denies several important considerations. Education or schooling, is a State responsibility and pupils must

supporting inservice education activities. The situation in New York City dramatically points out that if additional monies were available, inservice education would not be a top priority for additional expenditures. Looking ahead though, and perhaps being either optimistic or unduly naive, it is conceivable that local school districts will commit more funds to inservice education. Inservice education will become more and more critical as an increasing percentage of the staff is fully certified and is therefore not required to pursue additional education. Education, whether in the realm of knowledge or new instructional strategy, does keep changing. These changes will require a greater responsibility for providing inservice training for staffs. Obviously, funds will only be available if there is an easing of the present economic situation and a greater priority is given to expenditures for education.

7. Can state monies be made available for inservice education?

Van Ryn: The current situation in the states, or at least in some of the states, is similar to local communities. Education does not have the highest priority among legislative bodies. As a matter of fact, in New York, the percentage of funds going for education, instead of increasing, is on the decline and has been for a number of years. It is, however, in most state constitutions noted that education is a state responsibility. A corollary of that would seem to be that it would be a state's responsibility to provide for an adequately trained and prepared staff of people initially, and to provide some support for the maintenance of a staff competence. Therefore, it doesn't seem out of line to recommend that serious consideration be given to increasing state assistance for school districts and specifically for inservice education. Chuck mentioned that some states, for example Florida, have a certain amount set aside in their state aid formula for inservice education. I am not convinced that this is the only way to go, although it should not be automatically excluded. It is in the best interest of the state to provide an adequate amount of money for the support of public education and maintain a well-prepared instructional and administrative cadre of people. Therefore, I think the state should assume a greater obligation for support of inservice education. I want to stress that such support, if it were to be forthcoming, would suggest that the inservice education activities be systematically designed and addressed to the needs of the children in particular locations. Moreover, state support should also be employed for inservice education activities addressed to statewide concerns. An example of the latter might be in an area such as metric education where it is evident that all school personnel will have to acquire certain skills and knowledge to assure that students will be able to function in this world of new measurements.

Santelli: Since education is a state responsibility, it seems logical to expect the state to fund the major share of the cost of financing inservice education as well as the operating costs of regular school programs. However, in most states, this is not the case. The states are not picking up their fair share of regular operating costs and as a result a disproportionate burden for funding education is falling upon the local school district. However, state financing seems to be the most logical method of financing schools before we can hope to develop financial plans

for inservice education. As I mentioned previously, any monies that are diverted from school operating funds into inservice education may be looked upon as an inappropriate transfer of monies since the state is currently not funding its fair share of school operating costs.

8. Can federal government monies be made available for inservice education?

Santelli: Since financing schools on a state level is so complex and nebulous, it seems to me that the clearest source of funds which would be available for inservice education, which would not carry the stigma of denying educational programs to children, would be from the federal government. If one examines the court decisions on equalization between school districts, most of them make the state the responsible agency to ensure equalization among districts. When one examines the funding disparities between states, one will quickly conclude that the federal government is the only agency that can rectify these disparities. In the final analysis, probably the federal government is going to have to assist the states when they are having difficulty in funding education. Possibly the federal government will be responsible for providing an equal educational opportunity for all children regardless of the wealth of the state in which they reside. The federal government is the only agency with the kinds of funds that can provide adequate programs and services in the field of education and inservice education.

Van Ryn: In the final analysis the federal government perhaps may well be the provider of greater funds for education. However, I do have some concerns that moving the support for education to the federal level will create significant problems for states and localities. Federal funds generally have a number of strings tied to them with regard to rules and regulations, legislative mandates, and the way the monies might be spent. So while the federal government may indeed be in the best position to provide greater assistance for educational purposes, we in the states will need to have greater impact on the Congressional process. Otherwise, as former Commissioner Bell pointed out at a meeting of the Council of Chief State School Officers in 1975, "Congress will constantly write legislation that . . . puts the U.S.O.E. in a policeman's role." (Phi Delta Kappan; October, 1976) Great caution is going to have to be exercised so that federal funds may be utilized in light of particular needs that states and communities have.

The Congress has recently passed legislation, the Higher Education Amendments of 1976 (Public Law 94-482). The Act endorsed the notion of staff development by incorporating an authorization for teacher centers, and authorized, not appropriated, a sum of \$75 million annually for the next three fiscal years to be used for the establishment of teacher centers. It is interesting that the legislation allows for teacher centers that will be locally or regionally sponsored, as well as allowing a considerable amount of flexibility to local agencies, school districts, to plan, implement, and govern staff development programs in accordance with their own perception of what is needed. The roles of the state in the legislation are fairly well defined and the legislation requires applicants to receive state approval prior to the submission of applications to Washington. It should be remembered that this will be a

competitive program and the amount of money that is authorized, while certainly helpful, does not meet all of the significant needs in the area of inservice education nationally.

9. Can business and industry provide funding for inservice education for schools?

Van Ryn: A source of funding inservice education may well be the business community, and for that matter, unions. It is certainly in the interests of the health and welfare of the business community to have youngsters graduated from our schools who are well educated and who can contribute to the growth, and stability of the American economy. Certain professional staff members, those who are involved in the area of occupational education, for example, can benefit from some of the business and industry training programs currently under way. Ways have been found, and others should be explored, for teachers and administrators to participate in these programs so that they can get a greater insight into the actual industrial and technological innovations that have occurred. Such participation enables teachers to bring knowledge from those fields directly into the classroom. This is not to suggest that the only people who might benefit from such programs are the occupational education teachers, but that certainly is one group of people who might be a direct beneficiary of participating in such programs.

Santelli: I agree with most of what Mike has said about the involvement of business, industry, and unions in financing inservice education. We should put together an appropriate governance structure that would enable teachers and others to make businesses and industries more aware of the contributions that they can make to inservice education, and in turn apprise them of the contributions which our graduates can make to their businesses and industries through a better understanding of their purposes and goals. But I do not believe that business and industry will provide enough money, nor will it be a consistent source of money, and therefore would only be an add-on or specialized type of program that may meet the needs of certain businesses in certain communities and in few school districts. I really don't view it as an ongoing source of substantial funds for inservice education.

10. What is the relationship between raising revenues for inservice education and governance?

Santelli: There is an old adage that he who controls the pursestrings controls the purse. If we examine how our society operates, the people who control the purse also control what happens in the rest of our society. If you have any doubt about that, just look at the kinds of monetary and fiscal strife that our cities are undergoing. This is primarily precipitated by the very small group of very influential bankers and industrialists who have control of the major money markets in the country. If that principle of "money governs" is applied to inservice education, we have a problem. Because the people who really control the pursestrings in education reside in state legislatures and State Education Departments. If the principle is brought to its illogical extreme, it would mean that people who pay are also the people who "call all the shots." That is the kind of system that we have been operating

under for at least the past 25 years. It hasn't worked because the people who have made the decisions haven't been closest to the problems, they haven't been able to define them properly, and they certainly haven't been able to bring the resources to bear in instances where they are sorely needed. There is a relationship between raising revenues for inservice education and governance but we ought to make a concerted effort to insure against "money governing." If we do not, then we are going to continue the same type of inservice education that's been offered over the past 20 or 25 years, and we are going to end up with the same kind of results.

Van Ryn: Without going into the issue of the problems of the cities and other fiscal problems that confront states and localities or whose fault it is, it would seem to me that we need to distinguish between accountability and governance in the raising and expenditure of funds. I think it is entirely appropriate for public tax dollars to be expended by those individuals who have the greatest amount of knowledge and expertise for the wise expenditure of those dollars. I also think that the public is entirely within its rights, and indeed has the responsibility, to hold us, whether we work in a state agency or at the national or local level, accountable for the expenditures of those funds. I do not think that those who provide the funds should necessarily be directly involved in the allocation and the use of those funds. We do, however, need to be sure that we expend those funds in the most appropriate ways and that we can justify expenditures, and clearly indicate that those funds are used for the improvement of services to children. If we cannot do that, we will have neither funds nor governance to worry about.

PART II

1. What costs must be considered in governing inservice education?

Van Ryn: I think costs involved in governance should obviously not be the major costs inherent in inservice education. However, if you subsume within governance the notion of establishing clear-cut goals and purposes as well as adequate time for planning and designing inservice education activities, there is an obvious need to assign some costs to this area. As a matter of fact one of the grave shortcomings of our inservice system today is that we have spent too little time and/or money in the realm of designing, planning and adequately managing our inservice efforts. This often results in an unwise expenditure of funds for the delivery of instruction and for the rewards to teachers. I would suggest that adequate amounts of money should be made available for planning and designing programs and that it be made clear who has the responsibility for managing the overall programs, so that the funds to be used for the actual delivery of instruction are most effectively employed.

Santelli: It seems to me that the only difference between the new style inservice education which everyone seems to be talking about, and the old style of inservice education which everyone condemns, is that the teachers (or other participants in inservice education) will have an opportunity to decide the program and the delivery system for inservice education. I think that if we disregard

governance costs, or if we don't adequately make provision for them, we will end up with the same kind of inservice programs which have been laid on teachers for decades. This would be the biggest mistake we could make. At the outset governance costs might appear exorbitantly high, and possibly not very cost effective when you look at them in terms of the types of programs that are delivered. However, the start-up costs shouldn't be neglected or rejected just because they seem to be disproportionate at the beginning of the programs.

2. What costs must be considered for delivery mechanisms in inservice education?

Van Ryn: The delivery mechanism can take many forms, and it would be difficult at this point to suggest all of the different kinds of delivery mechanisms which could exist in an inservice education program and take seriously the notion that individuals learn in different ways. Hence, inservice education should be individualized to meet the needs that individuals may have. Services must also be provided in a way that helps teachers acquire the knowledge and skills that they need. Such an individualized program does not suggest that there shouldn't be opportunities for people to work in groups or have seminars, workshops, or courses. It does, however, indicate the inservice education if properly designed and delivered, will need to pay attention to individual needs, and as a result, dollars will need to be devoted to providing services of varying kinds. The notion that all inservice education can best be provided through courses conducted in the traditional collegial mode - a certain number of hours for so many weeks - is probably not reasonable. Yet, it is one we still seem to be wedded to, to a great extent. The sum and substance of all this is that the bulk of the costs for inservice should be devoted to the carefully thought-out and effective delivery of inservice education services.

Santelli: This is very difficult to answer because there are a variety of delivery mechanisms which you can consider. Some of these are very costly, and some are not so costly. It seems that if you are going to have an inservice program that is going to be appropriate to the needs of all the participants, then it must be comprehensive.

3. Are rewards for participants necessary?

Van Ryn: I know that a significant amount of dollars being used to support inservice education goes to reward teachers and other personnel for participating. I really think that this is an area which affords us the greatest opportunity for exploration, not to remove incentives, not to remove rewards, but to reconsider those in an attempt to get the greatest amount of mileage out of dollars that we spend for inservice education. It just doesn't seem very rational to spend the bulk of the money devoted to inservice education for rewards and incentives, and spend the least amount of the money for the planning, designing, and the actual delivery of services. This is not to suggest that incentives should not be provided. However, as I have previously mentioned we ought to think about, and jointly develop some alternatives to the present incentive and reward structure.

Santelli: A very old and traditional axiom in collective bargaining says that you don't give up something that you already have earned. If we apply the notion that's being discussed here, that's exactly what people are asking teachers to do. They are asking them to give up something that they have earned and that they already enjoy. That's tantamount to favoring college professors giving up 10% of their salary so that inservice education can be funded, or favoring superintendents of schools giving up part of their salary, or State Education Department officials giving a part of their salary so that inservice education can be funded. I think that we are fooling ourselves if we think that the monies that are paid for inservice credits are just paying for inservice credits. They are devices, not only to get teachers to pursue inservice courses, but they are also devices to get teachers on a salary level that would be competitive and allow them to earn a living wage. If we are going to change some part of that structure then we are going to have to change the way in which we reward teachers, and that has to be the result of the process of collective bargaining. It has to be done on an individual school district basis. Almost everyone acknowledges the need for some kind of rewards for participants in inservice education, but I think it is erroneous to assume that the kind of reward system that currently exists in most schools in this country is unfair for the schools. I think it is also erroneous to assume that monies that are currently being paid to teachers in the form of salaries should be channeled back into different ways of delivering inservice education.

4. Is release time for teachers really necessary?

Van Ryn: I agree that we should further explore the use of release time for teachers to participate in inservice education. I think that if this concept is accepted, it makes the issue of rewards even more difficult to deal with. Once you acknowledge the fact that teachers are indeed busy people who do spend a considerable amount of their time working on behalf of youngsters in the classroom and in other settings, you realize there isn't much time for inservice education. Most school schedules currently do not include adequate incentives for people to participate in inservice education. To provide adequate incentives for people to participate we usually resort to a salary credit or some variation thereof. If we were to go to release time, it would probably be a more cost effective approach to providing inservice education, especially if you preclude other rewards and incentives. I also think it would improve programs. I think it would enable teachers, as well as other participants, to be more enthusiastic about programs, since they will not be as tired or drained by the job that they have been involved with all day or all week. I think it is fair to suggest that release time would be one way by which people could participate in programs which were designed to meet their needs, and that this should not simply be a question of unions giving up something they have already gained. Other organizations have used release time for inservice education. State agencies, for example, enable their

personnel to participate in inservice education on company time. This enables people to maintain or improve their skills, and in some cases an opportunity for some sort of upward mobility. Release time is the primary extrinsic incentive for participation in these programs, and there is no other fiscal rewards that go to those participants. I think that this is often the case in business, the military, and in industry. Moreover, I suspect, although I don't know this for a fact, that union officials who participate in staff development activities do so on a release time basis, and are not provided extra rewards.

Santelli: One of the biggest problems facing teachers' participation in inservice education is the lack of time. Newspaper editors have made a big splash about 5 and 5½ hour workdays, but I think educators agree that if you total up the number of hours that teachers have to expend correcting papers, preparing lessons, and monitoring halls and activities, etc., that they really put in as much, if not more, time than most other people put in on 9-5 hour jobs. Teachers have been dissatisfied with college graduate programs, because they have had to take these courses in the evenings, on weekends, and in the summers when they really were not highly motivated to do so, especially after spending a very difficult day in the classroom. On the other hand, this kind of environment led the colleges and universities to provide the kind of courses which wouldn't make waves for teachers. They were courses that teachers could pass with a minimum amount of effort, and therefore, weren't considered very substantial. I think that inservice education must provide some form of release time for teachers in order to be successful.

5. Is there a recommended per pupil or per teacher cost for inservice?

Joint Response: No. The monthly labor review in February, 1974 had the following quotation which sums up the state of the art in estimating costs in inservice education:

"The question is, 'Is there a specific amount of the establishment's budget allocated to training, or is training lumped with other items in the budget?' Most respondents with training programs were able to answer this question. However, their responses indicated that the data would be difficult to collect. Some training funds were identifiable in the budget, but others were not. For example, respondents reported budgeting for items such as classroom training, books, and transportation costs, but other training funds were often lumped with production costs. Variation was also found by industry."

In a report by Dr. Kenneth R. Howey for the NIE-OECD International Seminar on Inservice Education of Teachers the following points are made:

"Lack of funds for inservice is one of the causes of this situation. The report notes that Western Electric, which

employs about as many workers as New York State does teachers, spends annually between \$1 and \$2 million on inservice programs. New York State once had well developed inservice programs, but is now spending less than twenty-five cents per teacher per year. School funding of inservice varies considerably from district to district, in New York ranging from zero to \$50 thousand. In contrast, the armed forces have between 10 and 14 percent of their personnel in formal training at all times. They quote the Polaroid Corporation as spending \$5 million per year on inservice - about \$50 per employee. The Administrators Study Commission suggests an annual direct expenditure of \$50 per teacher. The primary source of these funds should be the local school district."

"The projected cost for inservice is much higher than that envisioned by the larger Commission. \$500 per year per teacher is suggested. They base this figure on a prior assessment of the cost projected for operating several teaching complexes, and the 1974 Fleischmann proposal for New York State. This proposal suggested that 250 lighthouse schools be funded at a cost of \$90 million. The Administrator's Committee assumed inflation had raised this sum to \$100 million in 1975 (or \$400 thousand per training complex). In the Fleischmann scheme, there was to be one lighthouse school for every 15,000 public school pupils for (figuring a pupil-teacher ratio of 25:1) one for every 600 teachers. The \$400 thousand would then provide \$500 for each of the 600 teachers, plus \$100 thousand for preservice teachers engaged in the applied, or final one or two-year phase, of their preservice training in these complexes."

"When this report was written in 1975, the Administrator's Committee projected the cost of this lighthouse training concept for the entire U.S. Since the State of New York accounts for 10% of the U.S. population, 2,500 rather than 250 lighthouse schools would be required at an annual cost of \$1 billion. Of these, 75 percent would be used for inservice education, and 25 percent would be used for the final phase of teacher preparation. The Committee suggested where this \$1 billion might come from. The Federal Government would assign the \$265 million it was spending for a variety of inservice programs to the 2,500 lighthouse centers. Another \$175 million would come from Federal money used to support students of teacher education, who would then be supported

in these community-based teacher education centers. Because a considerable number of people in initial teacher preparation were not serious teacher candidates, rigorous professional training in a school-community setting might reduce enrollments in initial teacher training by about one half. If State funding of teacher training would remain the same, approximately \$600 million could be diverted to lighthouse schools. The local school system would spend up to \$50 per teacher per year. These sources would then produce over \$1 billion dollars. Although these projects are highly general, this was one of the few comprehensive plans offered anywhere for inservice, and one which actually suggested funding sources."

6. What is the relationship between expenditures and revenues?

Santelli: There are two ways to build a budget for inservice education. One is to look at the revenue sources and then build a program which coincides with those revenue sources. The other is to develop a program, total your expenditures, and then make your revenues total the amount of your expenditures. There are probably many very good programs on paper with adequate budgets that have been developed during the past five years that have never had any revenues to support their implementation. On the other hand, there are revenues that exist, for example, under EPDA and Title I, and release time under Superintendent's Conference days in some states, which have never been tapped for use in inservice education. It seems to me that we should develop a system that utilizes both alternatives; that is, that we take cognizance of the revenue sources that are available, and also keep in mind the kinds of programs and program expenditures that we think will be necessary in order to develop a viable program. We ought not to develop a program by only considering the type and amount of revenues that are currently available. Doing so would mean that programs will be developed to fit the budget rather than to fit the needs of the personnel.

Van Ryn: It would seem to me that if you were to go about designing an inservice education program in an intelligent fashion, you would provide a series of different expenditure alternatives, keeping in mind that revenues may vary to some extent in any particular year. I think there should be a program designed which has a range of expenditures and obviously a range of activities accompanying those expenditures. It would be incumbent upon those involved in the design and the planning of an inservice program to be clear about the minimum amount that is necessary to carry on an effective program. If adequate revenues to support the base-line program are not available, it would be a disservice to attempt to conduct the outlined program. I suspect that much of the criticism that has been leveled, and correctly leveled, at inservice education has resulted from the persistence in conducting programs with very marginal amounts of money.

7. How can cost effectiveness for inservice education programs be determined?

Van Ryn: When you look at the question of cost effectiveness or cost benefit you have to face the issue of evaluation. As you review the literature on inservice education one cannot help but be struck by the fact that very little adequate evaluation has been conducted regardless of the size and scope of the program. Without having data on the impact of your activities it is difficult, if not impossible, to determine if they are of any value.

To determine cost effectiveness you should have a program which incorporates alternative activities designed to enable participants to attain similar goals. Once having implemented these activities, you are in a position to ascertain to what degree participants achieved the goals and through careful record-keeping you would also be able to assign a cost to each of the alternatives. In this fashion, one would be able to make judgements about the cost effectiveness of each of the alternatives provided and adjust the program accordingly.

In examining cost benefit you explore whether or not the cost of a program is worth the benefits that have accrued to the participants. Inservice education poses a rather interesting problem in this respect, since the benefits of such a program should not only accrue to the group that participates in the activities but to the population served by the participants. At this time, I know of few, if any, reliable measures which will help us to determine if inservice education carried on with teachers has a pay-off for students. We can only assume that if teachers acquire new skills or knowledge they will be used in discharging their responsibilities and will have a positive effect on students.

It is obvious that if we don't include appropriate assessment techniques in our inservice efforts it will be impossible to know if professional growth has occurred. Therefore, I would strongly urge that all inservice programs include an evaluation component and that the evaluation go beyond determining if the participants enjoyed the activities and focus on measurable growth features.

Santelli: It is difficult to determine cost effectiveness in inservice education because of a lack of adequate and appropriate measures. The question of cost effectiveness for inservice education is similar to the question of cost effectiveness of schools. Most of us have been through the battles over the interpretation of test scores by newspapers in a way that places blame on either teachers, the principals or the school districts themselves for a lack of progress by students. The only major difference, as I mentioned earlier, I can see between the new style of inservice education and the old style of inservice education is that the new style inservice education seems to have a thrust of involving the participants in the design and delivery of the inservice program. One of the ways to determine whether or not

the program has any relevance is to canvas or question the participants in the inservice education project and ask them, especially since one of the goals we're trying to accomplish is that the participants in inservice education find it valuable. The second method, cost effectiveness - how it impacts pupil scores - is the one that all the taxpayer groups are looking for and that is impossible.

- Dean, Lee. A proposed funding mechanism for professional development centers. In R. A. Edelfelt and M. Johnson (Eds.), Rethinking inservice education, Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1975

EVALUATION IN INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

The goal of this evaluation plan is to develop mechanisms for measuring personal and professional growth in teachers and the resulting changes in classroom activities.

Once school needs have been determined (see Needs Assessment Section of manual) and before the inservice team begins to design programs to meet those needs, it is time to decide how programs are to be evaluated.

Evaluation must be closely related to the goals stated in the needs

assessment. The various groups involved in program development must be in on the evaluation design. In designing evaluation goals, it is essential to keep two considerations in mind: what can actually be measured, and what will furnish useful information.

In order to be most useful, evaluation should be continuous. It is important to evaluate at the end of an activity and to analyze the results. But it is also important to evaluate again, three to six months

later, and to share the results with those involved in the inservice program.

Inservice, to be viable, must meet the needs of the teacher, school or children.

Evaluation should document whether or not needs have been met.



Today there appears to be a steadily increasing demand for evaluation of all kinds: students are asked to evaluate language arts courses; the federal government evaluates its missile program. Teachers are continually asked to evaluate curricula, and inservice programs. Administrators evaluate teachers. School boards evaluate administrators. Federal and state governments continually evaluate programs which they fund.

This section is intended to help an inservice committee sort out the abundance of evaluation instruments available to educators. Many instruments are easily to specific school sites. No specific instruments are listed because each school or school district should select or design their own. The appendix includes a comprehensive article by Frederica G. Halligan discussing the evaluation process.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR SELECTING OR DESIGNING AN EVALUATION INSTRUMENT

1. Does the format address the overall goals and objectives of your program?
2. Are there frequent probes or ongoing collection of evaluation data?
3. Are the forms simple and easy to understand; are directions and items clear?
4. Does the evaluation cover pertinent information?
5. Is it easy to compile information from the instrument for a final report?
6. Does the instrument collect different types of data in a similar format?
7. Is the overall evaluation process relatively simple?
8. Is it a positive instrument; are the statements stated positively?
9. Will resulting data be useful for program revision and future planning?

SELECTING AN EVALUATOR

Evaluation in action settings is difficult and demanding; it calls for a great deal of imagination and tenacity, as well as research ability. The reason an evaluation report is poor or mediocre may be due in part to the abilities and/or expertise of the consultant or group conducting the evaluation.

In selecting an evaluator who is unknown to project staff or who is new to the field, the following should be considered.

1. Has the evaluator conducted similar studies in related fields?
2. Has the evaluator been eager and timely in providing references, samples of previous work, or other information requested?
3. Has the client staff been able to establish effective relations with the evaluator?
4. Has the evaluator treated confidences of previous clients discreetly in his discussions?
5. Has the evaluator provided a professionally written plan for conducting the study, a plan that specifies the problem, the methods and procedures to be used, the cost, and a specific timetable?
6. Does the evaluator recognize the need for staff to be involved in solving their problems and those of the program?
7. Does the evaluator avoid negative criticism of other evaluators or of evaluations conducted previously of this program?
8. Has the client staff reviewed the resume or corporate capability statements of the evaluator, and are they satisfied with the technical competence of the evaluator?
9. Has the evaluator been courteous, honest, and nonobtrusive in preliminary meetings, discussions with staff, and in visits to the program, to the best of the client's knowledge?
10. Is the evaluator willing to have his services evaluated through feedback, regular progress meetings, etc.?

Reference: Miller, Mercedes M. Evaluating Community Treatment Programs

EVALUATION: A PROCESS AND A CHALLENGE

Fredrica G. Halligan
The Center for Paraprofessional
Evaluation & Continuing Education
November, 1976

In recent years there has been a powerful movement in American society toward accountability. This comes out of the social movement of the 60's where the demand for change awakened the media and subsequently the public to the inequalities and ineffectiveness of many social programs. This radical thrust for change was countered by the conservative cost-effective-mindedness of the early 70's. Out of this blend of opposing social forces came a great emphasis on accountability and evaluation. The federal government as the major funding institution has instigated the proliferation of evaluation programs by making funds contingent upon adequate evaluation components in proposals that are submitted.

Evaluation is a tool. Like any other tool, it can be used for good or ill. Reflecting the opposite social forces that conceived this recent emphasis, evaluation can be used to strengthen and improve social programs or it can be used to cut or redesign programs so as to achieve a favorable cost-benefit ratio. Optimally, it can do both. Evaluation is information and information is a form of power. Evaluation used wisely can be a considerable benefit to society.

The challenge of evaluation begins with its purpose. Who needs the evaluation and why? If this is not carefully thought through, the likelihood is great that the evaluation will be ineffective, inaccurate, or misused. Along with

purpose is the question of the extent of the evaluation. It could be that impact and social change would not be improved without a major overhaul of the agency. Staff relationships may be poor with a resulting psychological contagion passed on to clients with ineffective services. Such problems require full-scale evaluation and organizational diagnosis. Or there may be pockets or incompetence or semi-competence which may or may not affect other areas by way of staff relationships. Staff morale is a good barometer of how extensive the evaluation efforts should be. There may be a number of good programs that could be made better with improved feedback systems of information about clients' reactions. Ultimately it is the consumers, or clients, who know how effective programs have been in providing the help and human services that they need. Individual programs are often evaluated periodically by measuring or observing clients' reactions. Often funding proposals are backed by reports of individual program evaluations which can be good information about the type of program and some estimate of impact.

Also linked to the issue of evaluation purpose is the question of who should do the evaluation. An agency administrator who seeks to upgrade the effectiveness of his agency and his staff functioning will be unable to accomplish a full-scale evaluation objectively; nor can an inside evaluator be entirely free of pressures to see things the way the boss wants them seen. An outside evaluator must be hired who can question staff in an atmosphere where they feel free to answer honestly. Ideally, such an evaluator, or an evaluative team, should be sensitive and trained in organizational dynamics so that the subtle nuances of what is said or left unsaid can be understood, integrated and recorded.

A smaller scale evaluation whose purpose is to record the impact of a single program - whether for program improvement or to back refunding proposals - can be conducted by inside evaluators assuming that such persons understand and are able to apply the evaluation process, are capable and have sufficient freedom to communicate with program providers, and are objective in their planning and reporting of evaluative studies. Monthly, quarterly, or annual evaluations are often conducted internally while limited one-time evaluations and extensive full-scale evaluations may best be done by outside consultants. Miller notes that, "External, or third-party evaluations are generally conducted if any one of three conditions exist:

1. The staff lacks the competence or expertise in the specific area to be evaluated.
2. An evaluation of a particular area conducted internally would be suspect or lack credibility, or
3. An evaluation of a particular area conducted internally would probably result in division among the staff."

Whether the evaluator is internal or externally hired, it is important to recognize that evaluation is a collaborative effort. A major challenge is the need to arrive at consensus about the program goals and objectives before evaluation can proceed further. It is ineffective for an agency administrator to hand down a list of goals that his staff may or may not agree with and which will be implemented only after being filtered through staffs' individual perceptions and values systems. If such were the case, whose goals are the real goals? Whose objectives should the evaluator consider in trying to measure accomplishment? It is equally ineffective for the evaluator to write out program objectives based on what she/he assumes after observing part (s) of the program. Rather the evaluator must ask the basic first question: "What are you trying to do?" Only then does it make sense to ask "How will you know

when you've done it?" The real decision about what the agency or program is trying to do is, in fact, a collaborative decision regardless of the style of authority used by the administration.

The outcome of evaluation should be related to its purpose. There is no reason to make an evaluation unless decisions will be made based on the results. In the case of the governmental mandate for evaluation, it is the funding source who will make the decisions. Naturally the government hopes to fund the most effective programs and thereby effect the quality of social services offered in the country. Evaluations made for internal information should also lead to program and/or agency improvement. Positive results offer support and a source of confidence for staff and administrators alike. Negative or partially negative results should be thoughtfully studied by staff and administrators in a process that leads to constructive change. Just as with individuals, agencies and programs will discover that growth and improvement come about as a result of incorporating changes based on constructive criticism. Good evaluative research provides the information needed for sound administrative and supervisory decisions.

An understanding of these six issues should accompany the initial commitment that an administrator or an agency or program makes when she/he decides to be evaluated. Thus political history, purpose, extent, personnel, involvement and outcome of evaluation are together the issues that form the preliminary challenge of evaluation in a human service setting.

Evaluation: What is it?

Occasionally in everyday conversation, someone will ask the question, "What

did you do that for?" This may be a not-so-subtle putdown or it may be an honest attempt to understand and evaluate. The questioner may be thinking, "That was a damn fool thing to do," or the thought might be, "That could have been a pretty smart thing to do; I wonder what he had in mind." The purpose or intention may make the difference in how we view the outcome of any action.

All life is evaluation. We often hear and use such words as good, bad, smart, dumb, simple, complex, intelligent, uneducated, expensive, cheap, healthy, sick, effective, ineffective. All these are relative. All imply a comparison. Evaluation is a comparative process. All these words reflect a value judgment of some sort. Evaluation, as the root word indicates, is based on values. Dictionary definitions include: "1) To ascertain or fix the value or worth of; 2) to examine and judge, appraise, estimate; and 3) to calculate or set down the numerical value of, express numerically." (1)

Whose values is evaluation based on? Who's to determine if a program is good or bad, worthwhile or futile? Is it the consumer/client, the staff, the administration, or the government? What about the evaluator's values? Even mathematics is relative when assigned by valuing and therefore biased humans. To be as accurate and as objective as possible, evaluative research must state its assumptions. One way to minimize bias is for a group of people together to decide on the goals of the program; then the evaluator's task is to measure the level of attainment of those goals.

Evaluation means different things to different people. Washington describes five models of evaluation including goal attainment, impact, systems and process analyses, and behavioral models. (2) Organizational diagnosis and the

Tavistock (3) type of social system research can be added on to this list. Weiss (4) describes social experiments, traditional evaluation and the accountability system. Literature on the subject is sometimes contradictory and frequently confusing because similar words are used differently by the various writers, often without the benefit of definitions that might clarify the meaning.

Gettling (5) points out the difference between evaluation and basic research, noting that while "scientific inquiry is aimed at the advance of scientific knowledge" and must therefore be as accurate and as exact as possible, evaluative research "has a different purpose. It is aimed at collecting data that will help in making decisions about programs. The decision often involves further evaluation but cannot simply be 'We must wait for further research.'" Thus evaluation is pragmatic and related to meaningful decisions to be made about programs.

Evaluation may be a one-shot effort, but more frequently it is a periodic or continuous occurrence. As with individual growth, agency and program improvement is usually a long-term proposition that requires various changes with evaluative feedback of results. The model of evaluation that follows incorporates important aspects of several other models but places emphasis on the gestalt: the whole continuing process of evaluation starting with needs assessment and goal clarification, moving on to consensus on behavioral objectives and program planning, through implementation, to measurement and feedback of results which impacts decisions about future programs.

Needs Assessment

A need is a statement that includes the purpose or reason for conducting a particular activity, project, service, or phase of a program. The need should relate directly or indirectly to a determined specific or developmental need of the agency's clients or consumers. (6) Needs can be felt needs, perceived by the clients and specifically requested or checked as desirable in a structured needs assessment questionnaire. On the other hand, client needs may be perceived by agency staff or administration but not recognized by clients themselves. (Psychotherapy is a need which is frequently not recognized, often even resisted by client populations although staff may clearly agree on the need.) Needs may be assumed on the basis of theoretical or sociological information, but it is usually advantageous to have some measure of client, staff and administrative perceptions of what the real needs of clients in this community at this particular point in history. Needs information can be obtained in a variety of ways: dialogue with small groups of clients, sampling interviews, open-ended questionnaires, or a structured checklist can be used.

One effective means of doing a needs assessment is to do preliminary group dialogues with clients to get a feel for their perceptions of the need, following this by a brainstorming session with staff, and from these sources compile a checklist of needs which can be submitted to groups of clients, staff, and administration for an evaluation of the priority of needs as seen by these three groups. Those needs which are called for by all three groups (i.e. clients, staff and administration) should become the priorities of the agency or program. Involvement of all three groups not only broadens the

base of decision-making but also is good public relations and is likely to result in greater commitment to and support for the ensuing programs.

Goal Clarification

For the purpose of this model, a goal is defined as a general statement indicating what one wants to accomplish to meet a consumer or client need. Goals are usually broad, frequently long-range, and usually not measurable.(6) A list of goals may include subgoals appropriate to specific agency programs or components, or there may be different goals for different time periods. Goals can be written by administration and/or staff but they should ultimately be agreed upon by both groups. The process of working together to clarify goals may surface some interpersonal conflict within the agency but as these issues are worked through, a more collaborative team begins to evolve. In such a situation a sensitive evaluator may prove to be facilitative of improved staff functioning right from the start.

Performance Objectives

Probably the most important preliminary step of the evaluation process is the writing of performance objectives. The evaluator and practitioners - persons on the agency staff who actually implement the program to be evaluated - must work together to write a list of performance (or behavioral) objectives. Cantrell defines a performance objective as "a statement which indicates who will accomplish what (behavior and outcome must be observable) as a result of specified experience (s) and how the outcome will be measured. The statement should include some indication of the time by which (when) the objective

should be reached and the percent (expectancy level)...who will be able to perform the task." (6) Well-written behavioral objectives make subsequent steps in the evaluative process relatively easy. Fuzzy statements or ones that fail to state observable, measurable outcomes result in fuzzy evaluation and often misleading results. (Measurability can include some forms of "soft" subjective data as well as "hard" objective data of the type that is usually preferred in the physical sciences.)

Writing performance objectives is a difficult task. For the uninitiated there is often resistance to expressing their aims in such mechanical language.

"By the end of grade eight 75% of the students will state effects of environment on developing self-concept by naming a famous person and discussing at least four ways that his environmental situation affected his development."

There is also the challenge of applying theory to practice. Theoretically group counseling, for example, is expected to improve mental health. The challenge is to determine how this is most likely to be observable (and therefore measurable); i.e. what concrete results are expected? What are the hopes for behavioral outcomes?

Impact or outcome measures in the human service field are undoubtedly most difficult to measure. Frequently clients' intrapsychic changes are difficult to observe even for the skilled clinician. Twain, Harlow, and Merwin, writing for NIMH, state, "Impact assessment is a key researchable issue as well as a major methodological problem and the development and testing of reliable impact measures is a priority task for research in the human services." (7) They go on to suggest, "Until research can offer guidelines about the best

measures of goal achievement, it is far safer to use all the measures that are available, both 'hard' and 'soft' (i.e., both objective tests and subjective descriptions of change), and to take measures at several different times." (7)

Measurement of different times is a must for any objective stated in terms of an "increase" or "decrease" of some client behavior. Such objectives are based on the realization that complete "cure" is unlikely to be the result of any one program. Increase and decrease terminology, however, require baseline data to define increased or decreased "from what?" The starting point is usually measured by a pre-test and the outcome by an identical post-test. The difference between the two test results then measures the change that resulted (presumably) from the program. A behavioral objective of this type is:

"By the end of a ten-week course in Human Relations, the participants will demonstrate increased understanding of interpersonal issues as measured by the difference in average scores on pre- and post-test items."

Note that when a percentage is not included, the objective assumes that all participants will demonstrate such an outcome.

Impact or outcome measures can be supplemented by process objectives which may be especially useful in those vague areas such as counseling where it may be easier to observe what the staff member is doing than what the impact on the client will be. Examples of outcome and process objectives, respectively, are as follows:

The objectives of the Criminal Justice counseling program are that:

Adolescents counseled will exhibit greater social adjustment as measured by a return to school. It is expected that 30% more

counseled clients will return to school than was recorded of non-counseled clients in the preceeding year.

Counselors will reflect client feelings in at least 50% of their responses as judged by expert raters of counseling audio-tapes.

Other hoped for outcomes such as improved self-concepts and increased mental health must await development of better evaluative measures. It is important to remember that not everything that is valuable is measurable. However, in writing behavioral objectives, it is necessary to state in a measurable way whatever aspects of important outcomes are likely to be observed.

Objectives must be concrete, directly related both to overall goals and to planned programs. Since objectives also lead directly to the types of evaluative measures to be used, objectives can be seen as the key element of the process, the sine qua non of evaluative research.

Program Planning

Planning in a program that is to be evaluated becomes a somewhat different process than is customary in non-evaluative programs. This change results from the necessity of writing program objectives as the planning proceeds. It has been observed that thinking is clarified in response to the evaluative questions: "What is your primary task?" (priority goal) "What specifically are you going to do?", "What result is that likely to have?" "How could we best measure that kind of result?" or "That result doesn't seem to be measurable; how could we interpret that as behavior that could be observed or tested?" In this process theoretical assumptions are talked through and clarified and observations based on past experience bring valuable information to the planning team.

Program Implementation

This is the one area of the process in which the evaluator is best not directly involved. In order to remain objective, it is usually preferable that the evaluator not be the same person as the practitioner who implements the programs. However, when the purpose of the evaluation is for internal staff use leading primarily to professional growth and/or individual program improvement, it may be that individual staff members are invested in evaluation and committed enough to evaluate their own programs by asking clients for feedback. In that case evaluator and practitioner may be one and the same individual.

Another situation where the evaluator may be present during program implementation is when "participant observation" has been chosen as the method (or one of the methods) of data collection. A third possibility would be when the evaluator feels that she/he needs to observe program implementation in order to get a "feel" for what's happening and what the impact is likely to be on the clients. In this situation observation would be preliminary to deciding on program objectives and measurement instruments.

Measurement

The expertise of the evaluator, or evaluative team, is called forth in attempting to answer the second basic question: "How do you know when you have done what you set out to do?" "Hard" data obtained from objective tests is a statistician's delight since, then, tests of statistical significance can be conducted. Evaluative reports in which it can be legitimately

claimed that "such and such a program resulted in statistically significant differences" have considerably more clout than reports that simply state differences or tabulate subjective responses.

In many situations "soft" data, i.e., subjective responses to interviews or open-ended questionnaires, etc., can be transformed into "harder" data by use of rating scales, checklists, or ranking. These scales must be decided upon early and questionnaires designed accordingly. In so doing, some of the freedom to observe and answer unimpeded by prior suggestion is lost to the respondent and subsequently to the evaluative research.

Other forms of "hard" data include anything that can be counted: the number of referrals to various types of resources, the number of clinic visits per patient, the length of labor and delivery, the cost per program of the number of staff hours are examples of such data. Cost/benefit analysis attempts to relate cost per program to impact. Cost/benefit is a system of analysis adopted from business which should be used only cautiously and not over-emphasized in Human Service agencies because of the difficulty with our present methodology of accurately measuring impact of human service programs. It is important to be especially wary of cost/benefit comparisons if the programs and/or measuring devices are very different.

Some "soft" data is very difficult to translate into measurable outcomes. Observation of psychotherapy, for example, or depth interviews, provide a quantity of subjective information that would lose most of its value if there was an attempt to pre-code answers or measure them. In this case the best analysis is a summary of results, counting on the lack of bias

in the evaluator and the sensitivity of the reader to judge the significance of the results. Reviews of case studies, the traditional social work method of evaluation, are of this type.

Feedback

Evaluation: so what? It was stated earlier that evaluation is for decision-making. If that's funding decisions, so be it. Hopefully, even evaluation conducted primarily for purposes of backing grant proposals also have the potential for improving agency programs. What did consumers like?; profit from?; learn? What changes resulted in their lives? What led to unexpected outcomes - either positive or negative? This information can be valuable as feedback to program providers and administrators. Hints are present in most evaluations that point to concrete ways in which programs can be improved. Client need reduction is almost always a primary goal of human service work. Cost reduction may also be an administrative necessity. Evaluative results fed back to the people who implement and administer agency programs can aid identification of changes that can accomplish these goals. Thus, feedback completed the cycle. Client needs are again compared to what is being provided with the possibility that objectives may be altered in upcoming programs.

As with any "feedback", caution should be taken that the results not be generalized beyond their true applicability. Feedback should also not be used to clobber but to inform about results, leading to potential improvement.

The concluding challenge of evaluation relates to the uses and misuses of the information that was gathered. Feedback of results to staff and administrators is not always a welcome process. When the news is not good, the evaluator should be extremely sensitive and present the information in small doses in ways that can be assimilated. There is always the risk of the report going the way of so many before it by being filed on the shelf and never looked at again. Another danger is that the information be used in a "power-trip" by one faction or another.

Evaluation can be threatening since all sorts of systems issues as well as individual areas of incompetence can be unearthed. The evaluative team must be prepared for this from the first, constantly working to build trust and involve as many of the staff as possible in the decision-making process as it related to evaluation (e.g., in determining needs, goals, and objectives). In spite of these continuing efforts, it may be that the evaluation results come as a shock to any number of staff members or administrators.

Evaluation can be to an agency what psychotherapy is to an individual. Both are complex and difficult to assess. Both may need outside experts (as opposed to "self-improvement projects"). In certain circumstances, it may be easy for the outside observers (whether evaluators or therapists) to assess the difficulty but much more challenging to communicate the information so that it can be accepted and acted upon. When results are negative, the agency becomes as "threatened" as the individual and extreme sensitivity and skill may be required on the part of the evaluator.

In choosing an evaluator, or an evaluative team, individuals should be sought

who are objective; clear thinking; technically competent in measurement, analysis, observing, and reporting; knowledgeable about systems issues; and skillful in interpersonal relationships.

A final caution is that both evaluators and administrators beware of the Scylla and Charybdis of evaluation: avoiding, on the one hand, trying to "eff the ineffable" (measure and define what is truly undefinable, e.g., "love"), or on the other hand, leaning to measurable information to such an extent that only hard data is accepted and a value system is built upon "valuing the measurable". It is important to constantly remember that our tools are primitive when it comes to measuring important factors in the psychological and social spheres. We must neither overemphasize those types of information we do get, nor ignore those areas that we are as yet incapable of evaluating. Learning, behavior change, relationships and human service will go on in spite of our attempts to measure and evaluate. Hopefully good evaluation will further the course of positive societal change by pointing to unmet needs and means of obtaining worthwhile goals. This is the challenge of evaluation in human services.

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SCHOOL BOARD AWARENESS

Because of their function in policy and decision making, school boards are vital to the design and implementation of inservice programs. Without active and sustained school board support and leadership, even the most useful and innovative inservice ideas are doomed to die in the planning stages.



School boards face a dual responsibility in facilitating inservice programs - (1) approving proposed programs and providing funding support and (2) assuming active leadership in developing and structuring ongoing instructional improvement and staff development in the district.

Educators everywhere face general issues concerning the development of an instructional improvement program. Why should school boards pay attention to these problems? While individual teachers have a responsibility to improve their own teaching, a system-wide responsibility rests with school board members and administrators to develop a long-range, comprehensive plan for instructional improvement and staff development.

General concerns in education today are:

1. To generate staff development and instructional improvement programs using existing resources.
2. To obtain additional district funds for instructional improvement and staff development activities.

3. To accommodate increasing student populations which also have greater ethnic diversity. (Where decreasing student population is a concern: to reallocate resources of space and teacher time into staff development and instructional improvement efforts.)
4. To provide stimulating learning environments at a time when there is little new building and old buildings have high maintenance costs.
5. To utilize existing talents of teachers more effectively in cooperative staff development arrangements.
6. To meet the diverse needs of teachers with varying experience, interests, and motivations.
7. To provide meaningful inservice programs for teachers with advanced degrees and extensive prior involvement in inservice.
8. To provide a shield from undue outside pressures and to make adequate resources available for schools.
9. To provide motivation and momentum for instructional improvement and staff development from within the local school site and district at a time of declining federal and other funding.
10. To generate an ongoing instructional improvement process within the school in which inservice teacher education has a crucial function.
11. To increase the overall efficiency of the school system by orchestrating the activities of the central administration and school personnel.
12. To provide teachers a more meaningful role in designing and implementing staff development programs.

Many school boards may feel that these problems have little to do with them. They may regard some of these issues as requests or demands from teachers, when in fact they should feel responsible for generating the instructional improvement process.

School boards ought to be concerned with:

The District

1. The local board, the superintendent, the administrative staff and all other relevant role groups should make a strong policy

commitment to instructional improvement through staff development.

- a. In what ways should this policy be evidenced by the board? By administrative staff?
 - b. Does the district have an overall instructional development plan? Is staff development a major component of that plan?
2. The school board should ensure that the district organization, operation, and resource allocation should reflect their commitment to staff development.
- a. Planning, design, and evaluation processes.
 1. How can the district best develop a process to identify training needs? Assess the strengths and weaknesses of existing programs? Design and conduct a variety of training activities to meet the needs identified? Monitor training activities? Evaluate program effectiveness? How can district and site administrators and teaching staff best participate in this process?
 - b. Principal leadership.
 1. What should the district do to encourage principals leader efforts to improve instruction and develop training activities at their school? How can the district staff be most useful to principals and school staff in the developmental process? Do they furnish schools with information about successful training strategies? Assist in developing instructional improvement plans? What is the best method of giving leadership training to the principals and key staff?
 - c. District authorization and legitimization.
 1. What should the district do to make staff development activities a legitimate part of the regular instructional program? Is time provided for planning, development, and training? Are money resources budgeted for training activities?
 - d. Technical assistance to sites.
 1. How can the district most effectively respond to a schools instructional, methodological, classroom management, interpersonal and school

process questions? How can the district best organize its consulting resources to assist school sites? What are the most effective ways to select consultants who can best help staff? How can the district monitor how well they accomplish this task? Do consultants possess a comprehensive knowledge of their field? Are they able to adapt these ideas to the particular needs of school sites? How can the district improve the technical sophistication of its staff development personnel (consultants, expert practitioners, principals and resource teachers)? Does the district have a system to integrate outside resources into its assistance program?

2. How can the district best provide its staff development personnel with training not only in their particular area of expertise but in the methods, strategies, and skills involved in assisting others? What procedures exist for developing and refining such training?
- e. How can the district's incentive structure encourage staff development activities which are related to classroom and school needs? Does district policy require evidence of individual and school staff development? How can programs build on professional pride?
- f. Maximum use of human and program resources.
1. How can the district make best use of its human resources? What are the most effective ways of identifying the district's best practitioners, who can work use in their own schools, in other schools, and in district-wide staff development programs? How should they be trained? How can they best be rewarded? Are career incentives offered for the more talented and active staff members as trainers, curriculum developers, and in leadership roles?
 2. In what ways can the district use exemplary school site programs as training resources?
- g. Establishing a variety of effective training activities geared to particular needs.
1. How can the district establish a variety of staff development activities responsive to identified needs of schools? What activities could be offered? Has the administration considered courses, workshops, on-site instruction, development centers, training

schools, internships, and exchanges? Do training activities include not only information but also skills practice? How can practitioners best participate in determining what activities are to be provided? In the design of those activities? In their delivery? How does the district ensure that activities are tailored to the particular staff being trained?

h. Monitor, evaluate, and revise programs.

1. What are the responsibilities, tasks, timelines, and purposes of district level monitoring and evaluation?
 2. Who needs what information and how will it be used -- and not used?
 3. What is the relationship of these monitoring activities to broader strategies of the district?
3. The school board should make sure that the district uses community, regional and college resources in its staff development activities.
- a. What approaches best integrate outside resources in staff development activities?
 - b. In what areas are outside resources the most effective?
4. The school board should make sure that each school develops an instructional improvement program. The district plan should support and feed the local site instructional improvement plans. Local plans should have the following characteristics:
1. The principal and school site staff should develop and put into practice a plan for instructional improvement.
 2. The organization and operation of the school should be designed to encourage staff to work together to improve the instructional process.
 3. The principal, staff and parents should view staff development as a major component of instructional improvement.
 4. School personnel should contribute to staff development.
 5. The resources of the school used for staff development.
 6. Training activities should be designed to reflect individual and school needs.

7. The administrative and teaching staff should have a system for keeping abreast of the latest developments.
8. The administrative and teaching staff should continually monitor, evaluate, and revise the inservice programs and change processes at the school.

SCHOOL BOARD AWARENESS

EXERCISE

PURPOSE:

This exercise will help determine the responsibilities of a local school board toward staff development and instructional improvement. A local board should meet jointly with teachers or teacher representatives for this activity.

PROCEDURE:

The extensive introduction to this School Board Awareness section is designed to serve as a discussion guide for a joint meeting of board members and teachers. Copies of the introduction should be distributed before the meeting, so that each member comes prepared to discuss the issues. A well-led dialogue should produce an agreement on the role of the school board in staff development.

SCHOOL BOARD AWARENESS

This is a list of possible sources and activities through which school board members can increase their awareness of staff development in their schools.

1. Professional Association of School Board Members - Many states offer such an association for members to share ideas and discuss needs for instructional improvement and/or staff development.
2. Resource Center - Often, a university or State Department of Education offers courses for school board members, newly-elected or experienced. These training sessions may focus on issues or they may address general school board responsibilities including instructional improvement and staff development programs.
3. School Board - Mutual visitation - school board members may find it beneficial to visit each others' boards to inquire about staff development programs and policies.
4. Classroom Visitation - Often mentioned, not always done, classroom visitations are a very good way to see teachers at work and learn first-hand staff development needs.
5. School Board Booklet - This manual offers a pamphlet which discusses inservice teacher education and a school board's responsibility.
6. School Board Questionnaire - This manual also offers a questionnaire for board members to generate discussion about inservice teacher education.

SAMPLE

SCHOOL BOARD QUESTIONNAIRE ON INSERVICE TRAINING

School _____

Date _____

1. What is the primary purpose of inservice training?
2. Do you think inservice training is important for your staff? Why?
3. How do you know if inservice is valuable?
4. What would help you to better understand inservice training?
5. Are there any specific changes you would like to see in inservice training?

The California Network for Staff Development, Inservice Education Discussion Guide, The California Network for Staff Development, Los Angeles, California (no date)

Prasch, John. Staff-all staff-inservice training deserves your board's attention now. Updating School Board Policies, July-August 1976, 7(7), 1-5.

Governance is defined as "the organization, machinery or agency through which a political unit exercises authority and performs functions . . ."

In a well-developed, effectively functioning program of teacher inservice training, the exercise of authority is done through collaborative decision-making.

Expanding teacher inservice activities bring with them the need for increasing adaptability from the governance structure. All participants to be fully involved, formally, rather than through informal influence.

This section intends:

1. To establish the rights and responsibilities of everyone involved with inservice education: teachers, administrators, school boards, IHE representatives, community persons, and state department of education and federal Office of Education representatives. Shared management is necessary for successful inservice programs. Responsibilities of each group participating should be defined.

2. To show that an inservice governance structure must be adapted to its particular situation.
3. To illustrate that differing participating agencies in a governance structure perform different roles.



GOVERNANCE

ACTIVITY I

PURPOSE:

This activity is designed for use by a tentative governance committee to determine the present status of governance in their school or school district.

PROCEDURE:

1. Under each of the headings, brainstorm and chart the needs of a total inservice program from the point of view of:

What is needed?

Individual Teachers
Administrators
School Board
State Department of Education
Federal Requirements
Institutions of Higher Education
Community

Who can do it?

2. Identify who can fulfill the listed needs: Who controls policy, procedures, or dollars?

What exists?

3. What precedent for collaboration presently exists? Who has previously worked together to plan, develop, and implement inservice programs?

What has to be done?

4. Should the governance structure:
 - a. Remain the same
 - b. Change - if so - how?

GOVERNANCE

ACTIVITY II

PURPOSE: This activity will help an inservice committee discuss possible governance structures through tackling a hypothetical problem.

PROCEDURE: Give each person a copy of the problem and a time limit specified by the leader. After each person has responded to the problem, share and discuss governance structures that would function well in that situation. Then repeat the session, using your own defined problems.

.....

You are responsible for setting up an effective governance structure for inservice education in XYZ school district. The administration has determined that the reading program in grades K-6 must be improved. The State Board of Education has mandated that to be recertified all elementary teachers must have a minimum of 9 certification credits in reading methods for recertification. The State University's budget has been cut and half of the education faculty has been laid off. The School Board has received adverse reaction from several community members about inservice sessions involving early dismissal of students. The master contract for teachers allows payment for one 3-credit university-level course per school year with the approval of the administration. No teacher has yet taken a course. Responsibility for planning and implementation of inservice has historically rested with the district administrators and the principal of the school.

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ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT

The school principal is by far the greatest influence on the staff's personality. Through the causes he espouses, the kind of teaching he encourages, and the staff behavior he rewards and sanctions, the environment which characterizes the school is set. We do not know how this phenomenon works; despite our limited understanding, however, it would seem that the easiest way to alter a staff's attitudes, at least with regard to its interest in professional growth, is to use the principal as the motivating agent.

---Louis J. Rubin



Continuing professional development for teachers requires administrators with sensitivity to the needs of individuals, of schools, and of school districts.

This section is designed for that kind of administrator -- to help the collaborative leader support the most effective inservice programs for teachers happen.

Good school leaders recognize that when well-planned inservice programs meet real needs, administrative effectiveness increases because of better communications, higher teacher morale, and more creative classroom teaching and learning.

The purposes of this section are:

1. To suggest that administrators must be aware of teacher, school, and district needs in order to facilitate effective inservice training.
2. To provide support activities for administrative use.
3. To suggest that the most effective inservice activities are those in which administrators are participants, rather than directors, in the planning and implementation of activities.
4. To show that inservice work can increase administrative effectiveness through improved communication, higher teacher morale, and more creative classroom teaching/learning.

CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE INSERVICE EDUCATION PROGRAMS

A recent study conducted by Gordon Lawrence of the University of Florida at Gainesville entitled, Patterns of Effective Inservice Education reviewed ninety research reports on inservice education. Among the conclusions that Lawrence drew from his review were the following:

1. Inservice education programs that have differentiated educational experiences for different teachers are more apt to attain their objectives than are programs in which all participants engage in common activities.
2. Inservice education activities that have teachers play an active role in their own learning are more likely to accomplish their objectives than are those activities which place the teachers in a receptive role.
3. Inservice education activities that emphasize demonstrations, supervised tasks and feedback are more likely to accomplish their objectives than are those activities in which teachers are expected to store up ideas and skills for use at a future time.
4. Inservice education activities in which teachers share and provide initial assistance to one another are more apt to attain their objectives than are those activities in which each teacher works alone.
5. School staff are more likely to benefit from an inservice education program that is linked to a general school staff development plan than from activities that are of a "band-aid" or "one-shot" approach.
6. Teachers are more apt to benefit from an inservice education program if they have been involved in selecting the goals and activities as contrasted with a program in which the goals and activities are determined by others.¹

¹The preceding six findings are based on the major findings of the Lawrence monograph. For a more comprehensive review see, Gordon Lawrence, Patterns of Effective Inservice Education, Florida Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida, 1974.

CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EFFECTIVE LOCAL INSERVICE EDUCATION PROGRAM: A CHECKLIST

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To assist school districts in determining whether or not their inservice education program is comprehensively and systematically designed to enhance the competencies needed by school staffs in performing their assigned responsibilities the following checklist has been constructed.

1. Does the Inservice Education Program consist of planned and goal-directed activities designed to improve or maintain competence of the school staff?
Yes ____ No ____
2. Is the Inservice Education Program addressed to and focused on organizational and professional needs?
Yes ____ No ____
3. Does the Inservice Education Program have both short and long-range goals?
Yes ____ No ____
4. Is the Inservice Education Program designed by representatives of those for whom the program is planned?
Yes ____ No ____
5. Does the Inservice Education Program foster improvement of services to students by enabling staff to improve procedures, practices, skills and acquire new and appropriate knowledge?
Yes ____ No ____
6. Are the activities and learning opportunities provided by the Inservice Education Program articulated with its stated goals and objectives?
Yes ____ No ____

7. Does the Inservice Education Program allow for the active involvement of participants and make provisions for individualization?

Yes _____ No _____

8. Is the Inservice Education Program adequately funded, maintaining an appropriate balance between costs encumbered from program components and incentives for participation?

Yes _____ No _____

9. Do the management procedures established for the planning and implementation of the Inservice Education Program allow for screening mechanisms which will enable the program to utilize appropriate internal and external personnel to carry on the inservice education activities?

Yes _____ No _____

10. Does the Inservice Education Program allow for both formative and summative evaluations of its components and provide a feedback mechanism which can be used for program planning and modification?

Yes _____ No _____

11. Does the Inservice Education Program make provision for utilizing research funding pertaining to inservice education practices?

Yes _____ No _____

12. Is the Inservice Education Program an integral part of the school district's organization?

Yes _____ No _____

13. Do procedures exist whereby the public is informed about the Inservice Education Program's purposes and impact?

Yes _____ No _____

THE ROLE OF THE SUPERINTENDENT IN IN-SERVICE DEVELOPMENT

by

Dr. James M. Burk
representing the

American Association of School Administrators
November 19, 1976

National Council of States on In-Service Education
New Orleans, Louisiana

For practically any program to develop properly in a school system, it needs the support and encouragement of the superintendent of schools. In-service activities designed to raise the educational competence of the professional staff for the benefit of the community's children are no exception.

Among professionals at every level of the educational enterprise there is little doubt about the need for meaningful, constructive and viable continuing in-service development. Pressures from all directions are demanding an educational institution that is more responsive to every segment of our society. These demands are coupled with a phenomena never before witnessed in our nation's educational history; i.e., a declining birth rate resulting in smaller school enrollments.

Smaller enrollments along with adverse economic factors, are causing districts across the nation to discontinue a large number of existing educational positions and to forego the establishment of new programs and opportunities for young people. With a dwindling job market the great mobility of professional educators witnessed in the 60's is virtually non-existent today. Educators

are finding it increasingly difficult to find positions elsewhere. With such a circumstance in our nation it is apparent that the schools will be faced with a profession of aging teachers, supervisors and administrators.

Because of declining job opportunities, preparation agencies, colleges and universities are curtailing their pre-service programs. Consequently, with a slow down of an abundance of "new blood" in schools across the nation and a need for more sophisticated solutions to problems, there will exist a growing need for more substantial in-service programs.

As new commitments are made for in-service development, it is essential to discern who the participants will be, what kinds of programs will be needed, where the resource personnel will come from, when the programs will take place, and how the entire function will be financed. These are the critical questions that a superintendent should reflect on as a complete in-service program is shaped for the school system.

Participants

Often when in-service programs are planned it is the classroom teacher or specialist who is thought to be in greatest need. The teaching force has and will continue to have a need for retraining in a host of educational problems and concepts that are not only subject related, but also bear upon all kinds of activities in which young people are involved. Even though many feel that teachers are in greatest need of in-service work, there is the educational administrator who is also in need of assistance.

In a recent publication of In-Service Programs for Educational Administrators and Supervisors by Educational Research Service, Inc., it was stated that:

"Never has the need for continuous in-service education for school administrators been greater than it is today. Many new issues and problems currently face those positions of leadership in the educational system. Among these are: the new technology and the knowledge explosion from which it springs; changes in the national economic structure, population and employment pictures; the urban crisis and the position of the disadvantaged; the changing life styles and values of American youth, teacher organizations and militancy; public dissatisfaction with schools; and voter rejection of increased spending for education." p. 1.

There are other special groups for which various kinds of in-service opportunities must be made available. These include neglected minorities and women who have the qualities for new responsibilities and leadership but have not had the opportunity for complete educational development.

Programs

Because of the complexity of the educational operation a multitude of in-service programs are needed. At the outset it is important to know just what kind of programs are needed for a particular school district. In-service activities designed to learn a specific procedure must be distinguished from those established to develop a whole new process. In many cases school districts allocate about the same amount of time to each type - one day. Certainly that is ludicrous. Another type of activity often distinguished as an in-service program is the one day/two session affair that takes on the appearance of a long pep rally. It's much like taking castor oil - it's supposed to be good for a person even though it is difficult to take. Such programs tend only to antagonize and create hostility rather

than serve any useful purpose. Nearly all of our school systems are guilty of such practices.

Programs that are conducted should grow out of the needs of the people who are responsible for conducting the educational program in a community. During the past few years instruments have been prepared which list almost any number of skills that the professional educator must have in order to function appropriately. Regardless of the school district, it is certain that many people will be found wanting on most of the items mentioned on the survey instruments. Such a revelation could convince any chief school administrator (who may also be lacking) and school board that the staff isn't too astute. Probably a better course to follow is not to rely too heavily on prepared instruments, but to determine just what the district's problems and programs are and what additional knowledge is required to meet the needs adequately.

As examples, the school district may be planning to initiate open space education (this program is masquerading under a multitude of labels), it may be faced with a number of student discipline problems, it may be deeply involved in the collective bargaining process, or it may be faced with the need for new evaluation procedures. Quickly, it is obvious that the listing could go on ad infinitum. Therefore, you could or should provide your own listing. While such a plan of attack may appear to be essential for a local school district, it is equally important for regional and state educational sponsored programs. All types of educational associations including teachers, administrators, supervisors and school board members are also forced to determine just what areas of development

are needed. Probably it is here where programs wander widest from the mark. There are too many shotgun approaches prepared by too many groups with too little input from the persons who are to benefit. Even carefully defined policy statements are often inadequate to control hastily initiated activities when a new suggestion for a program pops up or a new source of funding is discovered for a specific purpose.

Resource Personnel

After the nature of programs have been decided upon, expert assistance is frequently needed to assist the school district or agency. It can be noted without exaggeration that most school systems receive from 50 to 75 proposals or advertisements a month on how to either run, operate or save its school. How many people or groups are in on the act? -- Too many. It is in securing the best possible resource help where great discrimination is needed.

Almost every educational association or agency is in some type of in-service activity. Joining these agencies are study councils, colleges and universities and a host of non-profit and profit making groups as well as the individual consultant. Some assistance available from these groups is designed to raise the overall quality of education and in other cases it is designed to promote a vested interest of the group. Many are designed just to make money for the sponsor.

When deciding on where the help will come from in working with the staff, a prudent administrator should first determine what ability is present

in the local school system and use it accordingly. Probably the next best place to search for assistance is colleges and universities which are near the school district. When a specific problem is broad enough to include several school districts, it is often practical to have someone with an established reputation on the issue. Then the search for a capable resource person could be expanded. Such a person can often help a group find solutions or structure meaningful activities and programs in a very short period of time. Regardless of whether the person is local or comes from a distance, the person must have adequate credentials to do the job properly. Never take assistance just because it is free or inexpensive. The cost to the children of the community may be too great.

Often a specific area needs to be developed for only one or a few persons in a system. Such training is best accomplished in a regional, state, or national setting. Presently, such needs might be fulfilled with a three to five day seminar or institute with a number of follow-up activities by the participant.

A good example of this type of program is the much copied American Association of School Administrators' sponsored National Academy for School Executives. Under the direction of the NASE Board of Directors, there are dozens of seminars and institutes conducted every year which are identified through a national annual needs assessment survey. In addition, this in-service arm of the American Association of School Administrators offers contract in-service programs according to the needs of a specific group or educational agency.

An argument that is a continuing one concerns when the in-service programs will take place. The most acceptable answer might be throughout the school year. However, in a number of instances it is impractical to free a large segment of the staff during the regular school term. Therefore, the most logical solution might be found by reviewing the time commitment of the personnel being in-serviced.

For teachers, the most opportune time appears to be during the periods when students are not in school. In addition, a program which may have begun during the summer months might be continued on Saturdays during the school term or in periodic meetings after school. While such a solution appears simple enough, there are a few concerns that must also be recognized with such an idea. Collective bargaining agreements often spell out how teachers are utilized and compensated for such time. If some type of college credit is a part of the program, a district may find itself locked into a precedent-setting situation that could be quite costly through an arbitration award. This is one facet of in-service work that must be examined in the light of a collective bargaining agreement.

For some administrators, the summer months may also be the most appropriate time for training sessions. However, with those persons required to work on a full-time basis, more flexibility is possible in scheduling in-service activities. In fact, some studies show that in-service activities for twelve month personnel takes place rather equally throughout the year.

Finances

At a time when the schools are facing some of their most serious problems, there are constant pressures to cut financial commitments to the bone. Usually the earliest programs in the typical school budgets to get the financial ax are those related to in-service. Often they are seen as a luxury because learned professionals "already know more than they are doing." Besides, aren't superintendents and other administrators paid to develop the staff? There is no way to precisely determine a school district's financial commitment to in-service activities. However, when one views the paltry sum committed against the total salary and fringe benefit allocation, the low priority of in-service activities is widely apparent.

Unless a superintendent constantly espouses a cause for staff development, even though there will be temporary set-backs through budget cutting, a viable in-service program will never develop properly in a school system.

Money constraints will always be present in any school system and the chief school administrator will constantly face priority issues. However, it is still the responsibility of the chief administrator to be the primary catalyst in staff development. Therefore, involvement and support from the superintendent must permeate every aspect of the program including the determination of participants, programs, resource personnel, time allocations and finances.

Other Aspects of In-Service Education

Coupled with the formalized in-service programs, there are many number of informal ways by which staff growth in a school district can be encouraged and developed by the chief school administrator.

Persons can be given unlimited opportunities in any system through job assignments. This is true not only for teachers but for administrators and supervisors as well. Various types of committee responsibilities are often avenues for new growth on the part of individuals. Through these job assignments persons involved are forced to explore new avenues or gather additional knowledge in order to effect a solution.

Even though there are many agencies, profit and non-profit organizations, and individuals seeking a toe hold in the system, there are those who can and do contribute significantly to the development of the staff. It behooves the superintendent, with the assistance from other staff members, to be aware of all kinds of developing activities and bring them to the attention of that staff member who can benefit by the program. A few examples of such programs utilized in our own system during the past year include those sponsored by our Intermediate Unit, the Department of Education, the NASE Danforth Program, Banks Street, the Rotary and Garden Clubs, private corporations and specific individuals. The school district through various membership programs also works extensively with the University of Pittsburgh and Carnegie-Mellon University's School of Urban and Public Affairs. There is also a mutual sharing of educational expertise with ten other colleges and universities with which the school district has student teaching and internship arrangements.

Despite the array of activities that any school district may promote or develop on both an informal and formal basis, the primary responsibility for professional growth surely rests with the individual. Certainly every organization must concern itself with the development of personnel. However, if for some reason a system is unable to make a financial commitment for a program and an administrator who has the responsibility for the function is lacking in essential skills to assist the staff member, it should be that individual's personal responsibility to secure the necessary training to perform satisfactorily. An exception to this statement might occur when the school district reassigned the person or insists that the person provide a new educational program.

There are many things that a superintendent might do to enhance the ability of the staff. Along with support and encouragement, there should be provided a multitude of teaching materials, audio tapes, visuals and other kinds of materials that will enable staff members to explore new directions on their own.

Regardless of the kinds and number of programs and in-service opportunities provided by a local school system with even the most positive support by the superintendent, the whole process can be made worthwhile and meaningful only with an enthusiastic, dynamic and imaginative staff.

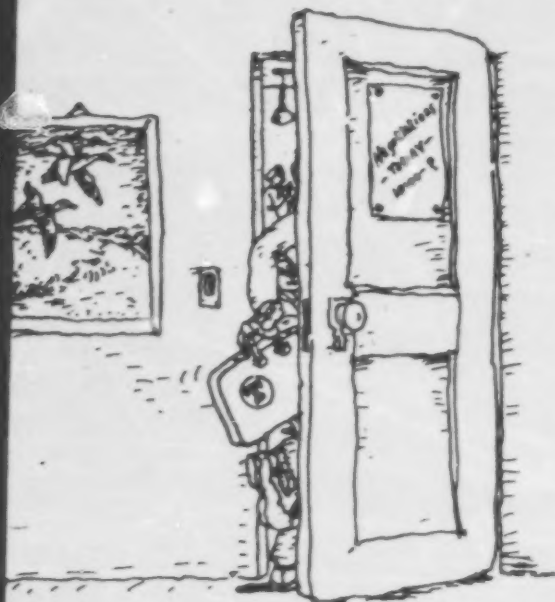
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NEGOTIATIONS AND INSERVICE
THE CLIMATE FOR NEGOTIATIONS

Negotiation requires give and take. Unfortunately, in teacher-board negotiations, in-service education is often what teachers "give" in return for better benefits or higher wages.

Very often, negotiation teams are made up of teachers representing different groups within the faculty. Each member of the team represents one group's opinion of inservice. This too has impact on the inclusion of inservice in the contract. One team member may feel very strongly that inservice should be included while another sees it as the first thing to be sacrificed.

If the majority of the team members feel that negotiations will go better if inservice is dropped, they may exclude it from team proposals. They may feel it is a controversial issue that may extend or harm the progress of negotiations.



On the other hand, the negotiations team may feel pressure from the administration to include inservice in their proposal. The negotiating team is sometimes forced to include it in their proposal even though it is not important to all of them.

These are just a few of the complications that inservice education can introduce into the current climate of negotiations. Some additional ones include: teacher organizations concentrating on minimum standards and protections; administrators using inservice as a punitive "evaluation" device; control of inservice as the breakdown point in negotiations.

NEGOTIATIONS AND INSERVICE

PROBLEMS OF INSERVICE NEGOTIATIONS

Inservice educators face several problems at the negotiating table:

- Priorities -- where does it fit in the educational plan of the school? Is it on top?
- Finances -- is it important enough to keep while possibly giving up something else?
- Content -- whose decision -- principal or teachers? Can that be a negotiable item?

When dealing with priorities, the association must decide which members are pushing inservice -- who wants it and is willing to support it. They must also consider who is or might be pushing for inservice education from within the administration. Teachers may feel that they should give up the idea of having inservice. They may have had bad experiences trying to negotiate it into a contract, and feel it a waste of time to try. Also, teachers may feel that to have inservice in their contract might reduce their chances of a higher salary or better job benefits.

Probably the most talked about problem of inservice negotiation is one of finances. Inservice is costly -- sometimes as much as \$64 per contract hour. Money is short. Teachers and school boards feel that if they are going to have inservice education in the contract it must be proved worthwhile. Teachers feel they should have a say in how the inservice days will be used and how many days will be used. Inservice funds must be well spent, not only to justify its importance to the taxpayer, but to the teachers as well. One possibility would be to allow teachers a specific amount of money with which to plan and pay for their own inservice education.

Finally, the idea of content can be a problem of inservice negotiation.

Should the content of the inservice days be a negotiable item? Inservice should balance teacher needs and administrator needs. Teacher needs can be determined by a priority checklist or by bringing in a consultant. As a result of these determinations, teacher inservice education can be individualized. Teachers with specific needs can design an individual educational plan. Designs can differ for different teacher needs.

Time for inservice can also be included under contract. How long will the inservice days be? How many inservice days will be needed or wanted? How often will inservice days be held; once a month, three times a year, twice a year?

How can these problems of inservice education and negotiations be worked on?

Faculty committed to inservice education should organize around the issue. They should get people involved in committee work and get others committed to inservice education. They should get ideas going. They should set minimum standards and work towards those standards and beyond. They should try to "sell" inservice. Inservice committees should include a range of faculty needs and interests. This mixed committee should come to an agreement on the type of inservice education they want -- individual? whole-group? a little of both? The committee should ask the administration to identify weaknesses and areas that would benefit from inservice education. The committee may feel it necessary to bring in a consultant. They should systematically identify the best available consultants. They also need to research and suggest a range of models for inservice education. All of this should be done before negotiations, so that the team can be strong on the inservice issue and aware of where the association stands.

NEGOTIATIONS AND INSERVICE

EXERCISE

PURPOSE: The purpose of this activity is to get association members thinking about inservice education needs. Working as a large group, participants should begin to generalize policy guidelines that the association might present to the board of education. These should reflect the tone, spirit, and overall intent of the group's philosophy of meaningful inservice education.

PROCEDURE: FIRST HOUR

- Step 1. Form groups of approximately six persons each.
- Step 2. Select group leaders and recorders. (Use some neutral automatic device such as the one nearest the door, the person wearing the most red, etc.)
- Step 3. Assign and work on the following tasks:
- a) Every person in the group (group leader included) should talk about the one greatest problem each has in helping students to learn. (Ruled out of order for this task are such considerations as: too large a class, worry about small paychecks, or other administrative or personal concerns. The focus is on teaching skills: motivation, diagnosing learning difficulties, etc.)
 - b) After each person has had an opportunity to state a problem, the leader should ask each to say why it is a problem.
 - c) As a third task, the leader should ask participants to try to identify what one skill or knowledge they need to do a better job in their particular problem areas.
 - d) All members of the group should assist the recorder in filling out Report Form I.

SECOND HOUR

- Step 1. Working alone, group members should jot down two, three, or more personal learning experiences that have led to better performance as a teacher. It doesn't matter whether the activities were individual or group, job-related or not, in-school or out-of-school, formal or informal, credit or non-credit. Was it a learning experience? That's all that counts.
- Step 2. Individuals should then share their experiences with other members of the group.
- Step 3. Recalling both the preceding experiences and the earlier group identification of problems, participants should begin to help each other think out the best ways of acquiring needed skills, concepts, or information. Be imaginative. Assume release time. Try to figure out the way each teacher would learn best, not necessarily the easiest or least expensive way. Each person in the group should relate a desirable learning experience for the need identified earlier.
- Step 4. All members of the groups should assist the recorder in filling out Report Form II, to be handed in to the workshop leader along with Form I.
- Step 5. (Time permitting) All workshop participants should work as a large group and begin to generalize policy guidelines that the association might present to the board of education. These should reflect the tone, spirit, and overall intent of the group's philosophy of meaningful inservice education.

Credit for this activity and the accompanying forms should be given to:
"Designing the Inservice Education Program: A Negotiations Strategy with
Recommendations and Illustrative Contract Language". NEA, Fall, 1974

REPORT FORM I -- TO ACCOMPANY CASE STUDY EXERCISE

What were the needs identified? There can be no more listed than the number in the small group. Each participant was to state only the most pressing instructional concern. List in "how to" terms. If there is consensus on one or two, list them only once.

1. How to ...

2. How to ...

3. How to ...

4. How to ...

5. How to ...

6. How to ...

For each of the above, list the reason given for why the particular problem exists.

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

For each problem, list the skills or information most needed to overcome the problem.

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

NEGOTIATIONS AND INSERVICE

REPORT FORM II - TO ACCOMPANY CASE STUDY EXERCISE

Problem/Need

Matching Learning Experience

1.

1.

2.

2.

3.

3.

4.

4.

5.

5.

6.

6.

NEGOTIATIONS AND INSERVICE

CASE STUDY EXERCISE II

PURPOSE: This exercise will help the association to set priorities for inservice education.

PROCEDURE: Distribute one of the following to all members of the association.

Ask them to complete the forms and return them to the committee on inservice education. The committee will collate the results and present their findings to the rest of the association and to the administration.

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Indicate your interest in having the school system provide opportunities to learn more about:

	<u>Very Interested</u>	<u>Somewhat Interested</u>	<u>Not Interested</u>
1. The ways students learn (e.g., learning styles, motivation, reinforcement, retention)	_____	_____	_____
2. A teaching area:			
• reading	_____	_____	_____
• language	_____	_____	_____
• mathematics	_____	_____	_____
• science	_____	_____	_____
• social studies	_____	_____	_____
• the arts	_____	_____	_____
• other: _____	_____	_____	_____
3. Teaching skills:			
• classroom management	_____	_____	_____
• individualized instruction	_____	_____	_____
• inquiry technique	_____	_____	_____
• value clarification	_____	_____	_____
• students teaching students	_____	_____	_____
• other: _____	_____	_____	_____
4. Alternative organizational patterns:			
• team teaching	_____	_____	_____
• open classroom	_____	_____	_____
• nongrading	_____	_____	_____
• year-round schools	_____	_____	_____
• other: _____	_____	_____	_____
5. Instructional materials:			
• teacher-prepared	_____	_____	_____
• new curriculum projects	_____	_____	_____
• programmed instruction	_____	_____	_____
• technology--use of TV, radio, etc.	_____	_____	_____
• other: _____	_____	_____	_____
6. Other (please specify):			
• _____	_____	_____	_____
• _____	_____	_____	_____
• _____	_____	_____	_____

(Continued)

What format would you like used if you were to participate in a professional development program such as those described above?

	<u>Very Interested</u>	<u>Somewhat Interested</u>	<u>Not Interested</u>
a. Time for exchange of ideas with colleagues	_____	_____	_____
b. Demonstration lessons taught by other teachers	_____	_____	_____
c. Visits to other programs	_____	_____	_____
d. Programmed instruction	_____	_____	_____
e. Workshops with high participant involvement	_____	_____	_____
f. A series of presentations by knowledgeable people	_____	_____	_____
g. Study at a college or university, either degree or nondegree	_____	_____	_____
h. Time to attend professional conferences or conventions	_____	_____	_____
i. Sabbatical leave	_____	_____	_____
j. Student feedback of their perceptions	_____	_____	_____
k. Videotaping and analysis of a teaching unit	_____	_____	_____
l. Time for independent study or research	_____	_____	_____
m. Exchange of roles (counselor, librarian, etc.)	_____	_____	_____
n. Other (please specify):			
• _____	_____	_____	_____
• _____	_____	_____	_____
• _____	_____	_____	_____

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THE ROLE OF THE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION IN INSERVICE

A state department of education (SDE) can function as both a regulatory and helping agency. All school districts are affected by some SDE regulations. Some districts also use the state department for help in staff development programs, by requesting either consultant help or funds. Many school districts, however, do not turn to the state department of education for help in developing inservice programs.



Often, schools fail to request SDE help because they do not know it is there. Many state departments of education have neither the money nor the personnel to conduct widespread publicity programs describing ways in which they can help inservice education. Thus, a group must exert itself and do its own groundwork if it hopes to take advantage of SDE programs. The purpose of this section is to help a group interested in inservice education attain SDE assistance.

Goals:

1. To explore existing group attitudes toward the SDE.
2. To help the group find out about SDE structure and offerings.
3. To indicate ways in which the group could organize itself so as to improve the chances of getting help. To show that needs assessment and a sense of group purpose are particularly important here.
4. To show the importance of setting up a good working relationship with the SDE.

5. To give a specific list of some things one could do to gather information and establish a relationship with the SDE.

THE ROLE OF THE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION IN INSERVICE

ACTIVITY

PURPOSE: To help a group planning inservice activities clarify their feelings about their SDE, and increase awareness of the SDE's structure and functions.

PROCEDURE: PART A

The following is an informal game designed to clarify people's feelings about the role of the SDE, and to precipitate discussion. A small group (6-12) addresses the question, "Do you see the SDE primarily as a regulatory or a helping agency?" Participants are asked to sit in one area if they see its function as being regulatory and in another area if they see it as being primarily a helping agency. Although most will recognize both functions, they are asked to choose one or the other as being more important.

The group that thinks of the state department of education as primarily a regulatory agency lists as many ways as it can in which the state department regulates teachers, schools, and districts. The group which thinks of the state department as being mostly a helping agency lists all the ways in which the SDE can and does help.

Then the two groups join one another and share their lists.

PART B

A leader conducts a discussion, which might follow the format below. (This may be done after the above exercise or alone.)

Discussion I: What do we know about the state department of education?

1. Do we understand the SDE's function, roles, personnel, etc.?
2. What experiences have we had with the SDE? Were they positive or negative? Why?
3. What did we learn from these experiences? What didn't we learn?
4. How much of our predisposition to working with the SDE is based on hearsay and how much is based on actual experience?
5. Can we use the SDE to help us develop our plan for inservice education?

THE ROLE OF THE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION IN INSERVICE

EXERCISE

This section assumes that the group interested in inservice planning has some awareness of the state department of education, but that it needs to increase its knowledge in order to make effective use of the SDE in the local program. This section will specify a way in which local school districts can (1) establish a working relationship with the state department of education - (2) become knowledgeable about the various resources available from and through the state department of education and (3) organize themselves to have maximum influence in requesting and utilizing those services.

One member or more of the inservice planning group should be made responsible for coordination with the state department of education. It may be necessary for this person to check with the district central office before initiating contact with state officials, but the superintendent, especially in a small district, should be willing to facilitate a teacher's efforts in this direction.

WARNING: The relationship established by the inservice planning group with the state department of education may be crucial to the success of the program. An important aspect of this coordination will be determining and establishing an effective operating climate.

A school district must have a sound sense of its own identity before it can establish a productive relationship with the state department of education. The local district must have a clear and unified sense of purpose emerging from the active planning participation of all those likely to be affected by inservice education.

This pre-planning must include:

- 1) Determine what needs to be done by setting goals and objectives
- 2) Define the steps that have to be taken to accomplish the objectives in terms clear enough to be used as check points to determine progress
- 3) Anticipate possible problems and pitfalls of the selected course of action so that they can be avoided
- 4) Identify the controls necessary to guarantee that the plans will be carried out effectively
- 5) Stipulate resources needed to carry out the desired program (money, space, facilities, transportation, educational materials, and professional expertise)
- 6) Organize for action

Those responsible for making contact with the state department of education could use some or all of the following methods of getting information:

- 1) Get the state department of education's personnel directory. It is a list of all its professional employees, phone numbers, titles.
 - a) Match SDE staff specialists with local needs
 - b) Find out from the SDE who has used their services
 1. Check with the users to find out whether the service they had was of high quality
 2. Check with the users to establish conditions under which the consultants were most effective (working with small groups, lectures, workshops, etc.)
 - c) Identify appropriate consultants and find out when they are available and how they like to work.
- 2) Get of list of current specially funded programs in any way connected to teacher improvement. Do this division (or bureau) by division. Consider going to some program sites to pick up documents and let people know you might be interested in participation.
- 3) Get a copy of the SDE budget, or ask to see it and take notes.
- 4) Find out from your superintendent how constructive the relationships are between local districts and the SDE. What is his attitude? Where can he support you?

- 5) Get on the mailing list for the state board agenda. Tell them which programs you like, as your approval will reinforce those programs.
- 6) Call the department of teacher education and certification and find out what's coming. Ask to help them plan. Get copies of their policies.
- 7) Get opinions (not mandates) from your local board about inservice needs as they see them. This information is leverage with the SDE and may open up other possibilities.
- 8) In general, assume the SDE would rather be responsible and helpful than regulatory. Ask them for help they can give. Remember, no SDE employee you talk to has loose money - so don't begin sentences with, "Do you have money for..." They don't - not at the time you ask them. But they may later.

The inservice team can use the following checklist as a guide to finding out the state department's position on inservice education and the ways the state might assist in the development of local inservice programs. (For a further refinement of each item on the checklist, see the appendix.)

- _____ 1. Does the state have an inservice education law or other operating policies?
- _____ 2. Does the state department of education have a coordinator of inservice education?
- _____ 3. Does the state department of education have a budget for inservice education?
- _____ 4. Does the state department of education maintain information resources on inservice education?
- _____ 5. What procedures should the inservice planning group establish for assuring effective cooperation with the SDE?

The checklist can be used by inservice planners to find out the state's position on inservice education and the ways the state might assist in the development of local inservice programs.

*Does the state have an inservice education law or other operating policies?

1. Are limits placed on local initiatives; if so, how or what?
2. Is inservice required for maintenance of certification or for other purposes? Specify.
3. Is provision made for release time or other means of delivering inservice?
4. Are there restrictions on the types of inservice, purposes, or responsible agencies?
5. Is state approval required for local plans; if so, how and when?

*Does the state education agency have a coordinator of inservice education?

1. How might this coordinator serve the inservice planning group?
2. What planning guides and other sources of information are available through this office?
3. Are funds available from the coordinator's office; if so, when and how?
4. Does the coordinator have approval authority over local plans?

*Does the state agency have a budget for inservice education?

1. How (and when) are funds available to local groups?
2. How are programs announced, and/or how does the school receive information about applying?

3. Can these funds be used to meet the kinds of needs felt to be important by the inservice planning groups?
4. Do any current federal programs include inservice funds? If so, which ones and how are they available to the school?
5. Does the state fund inservice-related program changes? (e.g. curriculum implementation programs?)
6. Will the funds help meet the objectives of the local inservice planning group, or are they meant only to help implement objectives already defined by the state program?
7. How can state education agency personnel assist in the development and operation of inservice programs?
8. Are subject matter specialists and/or supervisors assigned responsibilities for assisting schools and districts with inservice concerns? If so, how can the inservice planning groups get these services?
9. Can these persons "deliver" inservice experiences? If so, how and under what conditions?

*Does the state education agency maintain information resources on inservice which might be useful to the inservice planning group?

1. Is there an ERIC terminal? If so, how can one get access to it?
2. Does the state publish bibliographies of information, brochures, and/or other types of materials?
3. Has the state published guidelines or planning materials for inservice?

*Here are some questions which the planning group should ask themselves:

1. Has contact been made with all persons in the state education agency concerned with inservice?
2. Have coordinating relationships and/or procedures been established?
3. Have appropriate state education agency persons been invited to join the inservice planning group (on a regular or as needed basis)?
4. Does the inservice planning group have a list of information sources in the state education agency?
5. Does the inservice planning group have a calendar of critical dates, including any proposal due dates, state sponsored events, etc.?

6. Does the inservice planning group share its plan with the state inservice coordinator and others in the state education agency?
7. If state approval is required, does the planning group understand the timing and procedures?
8. Is the inservice planning group on all appropriate mailing lists maintained by the state education agency? (Are specific persons other than the superintendent or principal included so that materials are certain to be directed to the right person?)

Allen, Wendell C. State government and teacher education - A different role for the state education agency. In R. A. Edelfelt and Wendell C. Allen (Eds.), The Seattle Conference - The role of the state department of education in teacher education. Olympia, Washington. Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1967.

RURAL TEACHER CENTERS

The term "Teacher Center" is sweeping the nation. It evokes in educators a wide variety of philosophical and physical images. A Teacher Center can be an elaborate building filled with every instructional resource or simply a place where teachers can meet and share ideas. But, whatever their structure, Teacher Centers are becoming a positive component of education.

Models for teacher centers are as diverse as the teachers who participate in them. This section presents a variety of materials that can be helpful to teachers and administrators in defining, planning and creating a teacher center. Our primary purpose is to suggest that a teacher center must be well-planned and involve the active participation of teachers from the beginning. A teacher center is a very reasonable solution to many needs of rural schools. It can be a place to meet, distribute materials and resources, or just a place for geographically isolated teachers to share with colleagues.

A good teacher center can support a wide range of voluntary activities that foster professional learning and personal growth in teachers. Through a teacher center, teachers can find limitless opportunities to design personal and professional programs tailored to their own needs.



As many people begin to use a teacher center, they come to share human and material resources. An effective exchange of resources occurs when people fill varying roles and needs.

When planning and operating a teacher center in a rural school district, there are several important things to remember:

1. Small rural schools tend to be very independent, both in operation and physical plant
2. Professional isolation of teachers from other adults and materials is high; so is community visibility and accountability is high
3. There are frequently fewer people who bother a teacher with meetings and supervision
4. Distance limits teacher capacity to pursue programs which might meet needs
5. Rural schools do not readily accept "new comers" to infiltrate
6. Often there is a lack of centralized administrative direction, which places school principals in the unpleasant dual role of support person and evaluator

The purposes of this section are:

1. To suggest that teacher centers can support professional learning and the personal growth of teachers.
2. To show that a teacher center can help teachers design personal and professional growth programs.
3. To suggest that a teacher's involvement in teacher center activities should be voluntary.
4. To show how materials and human resources can be efficiently shared through a teacher center model.
5. To show that effective teacher centers are modeled around individual school needs and resources. The range of teacher centers is limitless.

TEACHER CENTERS: A Look At The Pros And Cons

Planning for a teacher center involves problems. This section gives a comprehensive listing of concerns that can arise when considering, planning, or operating a teacher center. Several are peculiar to Rural Teacher Centers, but most have broader implications.

In dealing with these problems, it is important to see the pros and cons of a particular situation. Once you have considered the immediate and long-range implications of certain decisions, it is considerably easier to determine the next steps.

The following list can be used in a variety of ways:

1. As information which will enhance awareness of problems and their implications
2. To suggest possible solutions to problems not previously considered
3. To pinpoint important areas to be considered when designing a teacher center

TEACHER CENTERS: A LOOK AT PROS & CONS

PROBLEM STATEMENTS	HELPING FORCES (+)	HINDERING FORCES (-)
1. Dual necessity of motivating and satisfying the teacher in a professional, personal, cultural, and social context.	- being taken seriously - inclusion in decision making - respect - trust - concern for individuality	- common offerings - lack of individualization
2. Need to relate activities to overall goals and philosophy of school and district (compatibility)	- attempts to make explicit the implicit assumptions which underlie staff development activities - attempts to make manifest the interdependence and/or independence of the elements which contribute to school district intentions	- lack of goals and philosophy
3. Need to consider issues of validity, cost effectiveness and evaluation of outcomes	- recognition by educators of the limitations of many current evaluation devices (soft data may be as relevant as hard) - continuous feedback to "authorities" regarding what is happening	- demand for too much too soon ("instant everything") - standardized testing (propensity to use standardized techniques rather than consider more global evaluative techniques) - lack of "common language" to communicate with variety of constituents - belief that educational outcomes like industrial products, can and should be specified precisely (quantified)
4. Continuity - lack of knowledge on how to move from contingency management through maintenance to consistent individual growth	- building of strengths rather than dealing with weaknesses - longer range planning - recognition of individual differences in teacher development - professional growth and development as an ongoing process	- staff development only seen as important for crisis management - disregard for individual abilities interests, and potential contributions

PROBLEM STATEMENTS	HELPING FORCES (+)	HINDERING FORCES (-)
5. Staffing - how to get and then best use scarce human resources	- placing resource individuals in position of maximum accessibility - provision made for renewal	- over use
6. Clarity of "big picture" notion (individual identity as a part of the whole without losing sense of self-worth and ownership)	- ability to identify with something that can be managed - reaffirmation of ownership	- extreme ego needs of leadership
7. Motivation and incentives for administrators, teachers, etc. to involve themselves ("manipulation of reward system")	- differential incentives and reward systems ("different strokes for different folks") - community support and recognition	- lack of persistence within a reasonable length of time - lack of reward - lack of expectation of success - unrealistic expectations
8. Climate	- neutral (safe) environment - cooperative rather than competitive - accessible, convenient, and comfortable - role flexibility (leader and follower) - expectation that contribution will be valued	- overpowering leadership - hierarchy maintenance
9. Relating school and community in a variety of contexts	- helping parents contribute to their child's intellectual growth - identifying, assembling, and communicating about community resources - identifying and training community aides, volunteers, and resource persons - enrichment programs for special community groups	- ignoring community - insensitivity
10. Administrative staff development, encouraging them to complement and support teachers while expanding and enriching themselves personally, professionally, culturally, and socially	- plan for complementary activities for teachers and administrators - recognition that administrative staff development is important	- providing none of (+)

PROBLEM STATEMENTS

HELPING FORCES (+)

HINDERING FORCES (-)

- | | | |
|---|--|---|
| <p>11. How can teachers contribute to development and refinement of curriculum?</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - teachers' understanding the importance of their role in curriculum development - formation and support of voluntary groups to address curriculum issues - helping teachers combine and evaluate available elements to produce an appropriate curriculum for children they teach - facilitating teachers' understanding of the relationship between learning theory and curriculum | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - blanket adoption of "canned" curriculum |
| <p>12. Realization of local leadership potential</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - peer leadership in staff development activities - identification support of local resources - provision of opportunities for use of local leadership (on-going process) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - bringing in or exclusively using external "experts" |
| <p>13. How to create a neutral forum</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - a separate physical location - confidentiality - voluntary participation - leadership has an open agenda - leadership listens, observes, facilitates, engages, supports | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - total dependence on any one source for budget, space, time direction - narrow, specific commitment |
| <p>14. Problems related to governance of a staff development agency, eg:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - who are decision makers? - accountability - provision for feedback | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - designate responsibility for component functions - representative decision making | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - gap between decisions and support for their implementation - decisions made at some distance from the "action" - conflict between <u>apparent</u> and <u>actual</u> decision makers |

PROBLEM STATEMENTS	HELPING FORCES (+)	HINDERING FORCES (-)
15. Evaluation a. as justification for continuing b. for on-going feedback and flexibility in program management	- acknowledgement of the importance of multiple evaluation methodologies (formative and summative) - precision of goal statements	- demand for premature performance statements
16. Articulation of a conceptual framework (goals, philosophy, and purpose)	- willingness to engage in theoretical dialogue on teacher center function - acknowledgement of the need for conceptual underpinnings to inform our practice seeing the need for periodic updating of <u>any</u> theoretical framework as a matter of course - publicly expressing in clear language, any operating assumptions	- hasty rejection of the "theoretical" as non-functional - too ready justification of the fashionable
17. Fragility of existence depending on funding, energy, and changing needs of clients	- seeking guaranteed, long-term funding - commitment to the concept backed up by positive actions of the leadership and initiating agency (leadership may change; seek <u>quality</u> rather than <u>longevity</u>)	- being forced to operate under continuing threat of extinction
18. Politics of staff development	- establishment of independent identity	- letting special interests dominate the teacher center
19. How can teachers be provided with easily accessible, non-threatening help in their own classrooms? (i.e. staff development on the job.)	- recognition of RTC staff as competent in curriculum areas - RTC staff making themselves available to visit classrooms	- encouraging all activities and services to take place in the RTC.

TEACHER CENTER PLANNING ACTIVITY*

PURPOSE:

This activity simulates an experience in developing and operating a Teacher Center. The activity can be completed in a two-day work session (in this case all mods would be done simultaneously), or over an extended planning period with each mod done separately.

The mods mix simulation activities with input sessions. On occasion it is suggested that "consultant" services (if available) be secured.

This simulation activity could easily be adapted for real planning in a local context.

PROCEDURE:

Select from volunteers an Advisory Board whose responsibility will be to investigate and plan a Teacher Center for your school or district. The board should be composed of seven to nine participants, representing the school district, the teacher organization, the school board, a higher education institution, the community, and the state education agency. During the planning period this board will be led through a series of experiences:

- a. Setting goals, assumptions, and operational objectives for a Teacher Center
- b. Determining organizational structure, governance processes and delivery mechanisms for a Teacher Center
- c. Initiating Teacher Center activities
- d. Solving Teacher Center operational problems

Before starting Mod I, choose a recorder for the Advisory Board. The recorder should have a packet of ditto masters for recording conclusions or information produced by the board.

The following work session mods are designed to accommodate the needs of a diverse population for information about teacher centers. The mods should also help the group examine a process useful in designing centers. It is important to remember that a teacher center serves a diverse group and that these differences will be reflected within the Advisory Board.

*Adapted from materials prepared for the Teacher Educations Centers Conference, March 5-6, 1975, Tallahassee, Florida. The Florida State University Center for Experimentation in Teacher Education and The National Consortium of Competency-Bases Education Centers

After completing these modes, the planning group should better understand:

1. The planning process and activities incorporated in the model being used
2. The dynamics of collaboration
3. The perceptions of other individuals and the groups they represent
4. The need for comprehensive and constructive planning before opening a Teacher Center

MOD I

Selecting Assumptions Relative to Teacher Centers

- STEP I Each member of the group should review the statement by Schmieder and Yarger in which they define the seven types of teacher centers. (See Appendix A)
- STEP II The group should tentatively agree on one type to use as the basis for its work session.
- STEP III The group should review the three definitions of a Teacher Center provided (Appendix B) and choose one which best fits the members' idea of what a center should be. Modify the definitions if necessary to achieve consensus, so that the group may proceed promptly to the selection of assumptions. If the group would rather write their own definition, they should do so.
- STEP IV Each group member will receive a display folder, fifteen individual assumption statements, and 30 disks. With these materials, use the following process individually to rank the assumptions by importance. Realize that these are selected assumptions about teacher centers, purposely limited in scope to facilitate the simulation process.
1. Open the display folder and familiarize yourself with the format
 2. Read each assumption from the statement cards. As you reach each card, ask yourself, "Is this a valid assumption about a teacher center?"
 3. Place each assumption statement card on the display folder under the column labeled "Assumptions." The order in which you place the cards on the folder is not important. There is one space for each card.
 4. Place a disk in Column #1 beside each of the 15 assumption statements. Each disk is worth one point.
 5. Reread the assumption statements. You may find that some assumptions are more important than others. For those assumptions you believe to be more important, place another disk beside each of those in Column #2.
 6. Read the assumptions that have two (2) disks beside them. You may find that some of these assumptions are more important than others. For each of those assumptions you believe to be more important, place a disk beside it in Column #3.

Have you used all your disks?
If not, continue on to direction #7
If yes, see direction #8

7. Read the assumption statements that have three (3) disks beside them. You may find some of these goals are of extreme importance. For those assumptions you believe to be of extreme importance, place a disk beside them in Column #4.
8. Review your Display Folder and keep in mind the following:
 - a. All thirty (30) disks must be used.
 - b. At least one assumption must have four (4) disks (4 points) beside it.
 - c. A maximum of four (4) disks are allowed for any one assumption statement.
 - d. It is not necessary for an assumption statement to have a disk beside it.
 - e. In the event you wish to rearrange your display folder, you may add or remove disks (points) from the assumption statements (remembering that disks must always be in horizontal sequence with no spaces between disks).
9. Transfer total number of points for each assumption to the assumption summary sheet. Replace all disks and assumption statements in the envelope.

STEP V

The group should now reach a consensus score for each assumption statement. Select a leader for this step. There are two "rounds."

Round 1 - The major task of this round is to obtain a mathematical average for each of the assumption statements.

- (1) The group leader will read the first assumption statement.
- (2) Each member of the group will read aloud his score for that particular assumption.
- (3) Total the scores for each assumption statement and obtain an average. Express fractional parts of a number in a decimal. (A chart for summarizing scores and obtaining decimal equivalents will be provided by the monitor.)

Round 2

- (1) A group consensus display folder is used for this round.
- (2) Using the mathematical summary as an initial guide, determine a consensus score for each assumption.

- a. A consensus score is reached when 75% of the members of a group agree upon a score.
- b. If a consensus score cannot be reached, the row next to the assumption statement is left blank and the next assumption statement is discussed.
- c. It is possible . . .

- (1) that all of the disks (points) will be used before the group has ranked all of the 15 assumptions.

In this case the group will have to read through the assumption statements and make consensus adjustments as required (as you did as individuals).

- (2) that all of the disks (points) will not be used in the initial group ranking process; in this case the group will have to read through the assumption statements and make consensus adjustments because all disks (points) must be used.

- (3) that final consensus cannot be reached on one or more assumptions. If this should occur the number of disks given to each group will be reduced by a certain number. This reduction in the number of disks is made in order to guarantee that no group will have a mathematical advantage over the other groups. (Please see the monitor if this occurs.)

- (3) Designate rank order of assumptions on the Individual and Group Summary Sheet (pp. 239-240.) Indicate the ten (10) most important assumptions which will serve as the basis for group development goals.

STEP VI

1. Once the assumptions are accepted, the group should review the definition previously agreed upon and make any modifications made necessary by the assumptions selected. This definition will serve as a statement of the general purpose for the teacher center which the group establishes.
2. The final agreement as to the type of center to be established should be made by the group.

MOD II

(One Hour)

- STEP I Once the group has agreed on their assumptions (Mod I Exercise,) they should restate the assumptions in terms of general goals to be achieved by the teacher center. Each assumption can easily be translated into a general goal for a teacher center, and in many cases can be expanded to include more specific statements of procedures to be used.
- STEP II Rank order goals to determine priorities.
- STEP III On ditto masters record:
1. The type of Teacher Center you have agreed upon
 2. Definition of your Teacher Center
 3. Major assumptions of your Teacher Center
 4. Goals of your Teacher Center

MOD III

(One Hour)

During your next meeting the advisory group should:

1. Revise your assumptions and goals, if appropriate.
2. Develop an organization chart - boards, groups, individuals, and clients - for your center.
3. Write a statement (or draw a diagram) describing how policy and procedural decisions will be made.
4. Discuss the role of each individual or group in implementing each of your goals.
5. For each goal, specify where the decision-making power resides.
6. Write a brief job description (i.e. role and responsibilities) for each individual and group on your organizational chart.

MOD IV

SITUATION:

The Teacher Center in your school district has just been allocated space for its activities and \$32,500. that can be used to purchase resources. As the Advisory Board, you have been asked to recommend how the space should be used and what resources should be purchased.

Page 241 provides a diagram of the space and the specific questions to be answered. (Assume that the space provided is within an operating school).

Page 242 through 247 provides you with a description of the potential resources, including prices, and an order form. Simply identify your choices on the order form.

INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP SUMMARY SHEET

ASSUMPTIONS

Individual
Score

Group
Score

Rank
Order

All teachers involved in a Teacher Center should have a say in how cooperating universities train prospective teachers.

A Teacher Center should disseminate validated strategies of instruction and also should develop new, locally usable strategies.

Teacher education and teacher self-renewal is a continuous, never-ending process.

Staff development is needed to help members of the local education community learn skills required to work with members of other human service agencies.

Few teachers make an easy transition between the teacher preparation and the real world of the classroom.

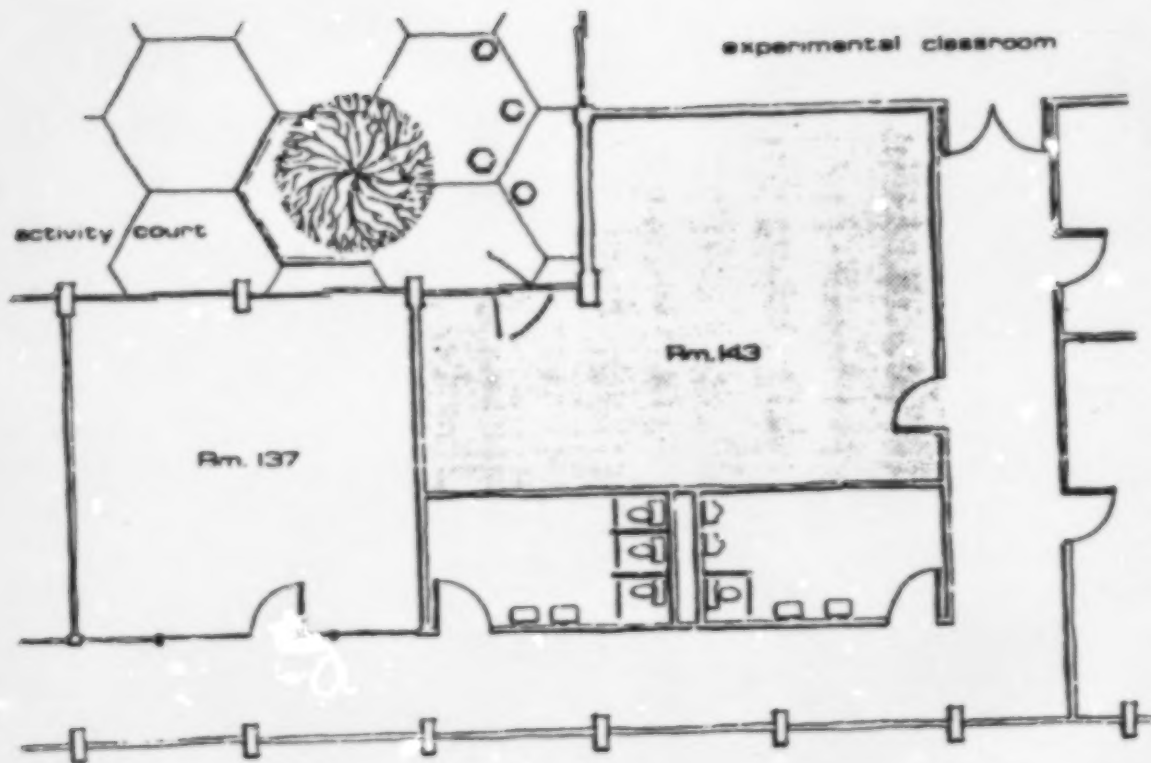
The best inservice education programs for teachers are those that make use of learning resources within the physical context of a teacher's classroom (on-site inservice).

Teacher Center governance must serve teachers, teacher education candidates, school administrators, professors, pupils, and parents.

Teacher education and inservice training conducted on college campuses is more professional than that conducted within a local school.

Teachers must have a substantive voice both in defining inservice education needs and in identifying appropriate means of addressing those needs.

The designated space is room 143.



Specifically determine:

1. Who should have access to the room?
2. What sort of activities should take place there?
3. How should the room be furnished?

*Adapted from "A Teacher Education Center Project", TEC Workshop, Inc.,
Cleveland, Ohio, 1972

Resource List

CENTERS TOUR

A one-week tour of other Teacher Education Centers by three Center-staff representatives, who will document their findings on slides, films, and video and audio tapes and present a report on their tour to the assembled staff upon their return----- \$ 4,500.

PROFESSIONAL LIBRARY

Contains over 1,000 volumes. Professional books, journals, publishers catalogs, displays of teaching materials----- 6,500.

DIAL-AN-AUTHORITY

Draw on the know-how of resource persons located anywhere in the world through conference-call equipment connected to regular telephone circuits----- 1,750.
(typical phone bill for TEP 9-12 mos)

TEACHER THERAPY

A pre-paid contract with an independent group of counseling psychologists to provide confidential therapy sessions to any administrator, teacher, or teaching trainee who desires such help in dealing with an emotional crisis or in pursuing a human-potential development program----- 5,000.

COLLEGE COURSE VOUCHERS

School-financed vouchers to be exchanged by cooperating teachers for university-based graduate-level course work----- 16.50/hr

CLASSROOM CONTROL COURSE

Training program in classroom control techniques, with emphasis on shaping desired student behaviors through positive and negative reinforcements. Opportunities for teachers and student teachers to set short- and long-range disciplinary goals and to determine strategies for meeting them ----- 1,500. + \$10.
participant above 25

COMMUNITY-DATA PACKETS

Information for student teachers about the local environment surrounding the T.E.C. - facts about people, places, and enterprises, with emphasis not only on the conditions affecting the youngsters they'll teach but also on nearby resources, such as potential settings for field trips and community persons willing to contribute their expertise to school projects----- 12.50/copy

VIDEO EQUIPMENT

Video-tape recording and playback equipment, including battery-operated portable videorecorder, hand-held TV camera with zoom lens and built-in miniature TV screen, three high-definition receiver/monitors, and a generous supply of video tapes. Designated for exclusive use by Center staff members. Teachers and trainees may have the option of borrowing the equipment for self-analysis at home of recorded segments of teaching activities, conferences, etc.----- \$ 3,500.

RESEARCH REPORTS

A continually up-dated collection in microfiche form of the educational research reports assembled by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education; two microfiche reader/printers; subscriptions to the ERIC indexes, Research in Education and Current Index to Journals in Education----- 1,500.

PRACTICAL PROFESSORSHIP

A part-time university appointment for a public school teacher from the T.E.C. staff. Approximately one-half of the teacher's time will be devoted to public school teaching, the other half to conducting an in-service training program for university teachers of instructional methods courses----- 8,000.

RATING GUIDELINES

An ample supply of checklists for supervising teachers to use for daily rating of performances of student teachers----- 100.

MINICOURSES FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

Set of filmed and written materials for conducting six minicourses. Each minicourse deals with a specific set of teaching skills - available topics include Effective Questioning, Organizing Independent Learning, Teaching Reading as Decoding. By devoting 55 to 75 minutes a day for 15 to 20 days to microteaching with small groups of students, teacher can practice skills demonstrated on the minicourse films, record own performance, and make own evaluation of progress. Your selection of course set appropriate either to elementary or secondary-level school----- 7,500. set

SEMINAR IN CONFERENCING TECHNIQUES

Seminar for supervising teachers. Deals with one-to-one conferences between supervising teachers and student teachers. Examination of conferencing strategies appropriate to differing objectives: e.g., clarification of educational values, affirmation of student teacher potential, ventilation of negative feelings, development of mutual trust, curriculum planning, and post-instructional analysis----- \$ 500.

CENTER ORIENTATION KIT

An orientation kit to be used by visitors to the I.E.C. facilities and by incoming student teachers. Audio-cassette recording and picture booklet guide a walking tour through the Center resources and major activities and provide background data and program rationale. Visitor borrows cassette player with earplug attachment, audio-recording, and booklet for duration of the tour----- 500. kit

EDUCATIONAL EXTENSION AGENT

Services of a peripatetic Educational Extension Agent who will disseminate information about successful programs and practices developed elsewhere; generate awareness of knowledge resources and communication channels; and give support to teachers adopting new materials or methods----- 16,500.

PROTOCOL MATERIALS

A set of fifty video-tapes showing a variety of unrehearsed classroom activities. Tapes in the set have been selected as being likely to promote thoughtful discussion about actual teaching practices. Guides to analysis are provided through supplementary written materials. Your choice of elementary, junior high, or senior high emphasis----- 1,750.

LECTURE SERIES

A series of five lectures per year by nationally prominent educators, selected by a program committee composed of representatives of the Center personnel----- 5,000.

TRAINING SIMULATIONS

Set of ten different simulations for teacher preservice and inservice training. Provide opportunities for groups to deal with realistic instructional decision-making problems in simulated contexts, with immediate feedback on the implications and consequences of actions. Low-risk formats enable participants to experiment with new behaviors in relative safety before making "real-world" applications of their learnings----- 250.

INDEPENDENT EVALUATOR

A contract with an outside evaluator to provide feedback on the salient features and effects of all I. E. C. programs. Based on criteria drawn up by Center personnel, the evaluator will appraise the effectiveness of the programs and report to the Center staff on his or her findings----- \$ 2,500.

SELF-SUFFICIENCY SEMINAR

Joint in-service and pre-service seminar on ways to encourage student self-sufficiency through helping student clarify values, set own goals, seek out own information needs, work independently or in teams on study projects of own choosing----- 450.

WEEKEND RETREAT

A fall weekend at a lodge in the country. A chance for student teachers and supervising teachers to get acquainted outside the school setting - to share hopes and fears, ideas about teaching and learning, eats and drinks, long walks----- 2,000.

PROJECT FORESIGHT

An opportunity for a representative of the I. E. C. staff to serve on a national task force charged with making long-range projections regarding possible future social conditions and speculating about their implications for education----- 1,750.

COMPUTER SYSTEM

A computer system capable of scheduling classes, student teacher assignments, and in-service training activities; storing and retrieving information on programs - including evaluative feedback; simulating and/or monitoring effects of fiscal decisions; and occasionally filling in as a substitute teacher----- 6,850.

Adapted from "Auction Catalogue," TEC Workshop, Inc., Cleveland, Ohio, 1972

ORDER FORM

ITEM	# OF UNITS	UNIT PRICE	TOTAL
Centers Tour			
Professional Library			
Dial-an-Authority			
Teacher Therapy			
College Course Vouchers			
Classroom Control Course			
Community-Data Packets			
Video Equipment			
Research Reports			
Practical Professorship			
Rating Guidelines			
Minicourses for Teacher Education			
Seminar in Conferencing Techniques			
Center Orientation Kit			

ITEM	# OF UNITS	UNIT PRICE	TOTAL
Financial Literacy Extension Agent			
Protocol Materials			
Lecture Series			
Training Simulations			
Independent Evaluator			
Self-Sufficiency Seminar			
Weekend Retreat			
Project Foresight			
Computer System			

Types of Teacher Education Centers
as Suggested by Schmieder and Yarger*

1. THE INDEPENDENT TEACHING CENTER

This type of center is characterized by the absence of any formal affiliation with an established institution. Without the red tape of bureaucracy, program directors and implementers experience a tremendous amount of freedom and flexibility. They also, however, experience the lack of financial security that bureaucracy often provides. Teachers become involved with this type of center on a purely voluntary basis; thus the center tends to have high teacher credibility. Independent teaching centers typically deal with individual teacher needs rather than complex institutional concerns.

2. THE "ALMOST" INDEPENDENT TEACHING CENTER

An "almost" independent center isn't independent, it just thinks it is! Although formally linked with an educational institution (either a college or school system), a high amount of autonomy is evident. This autonomy is usually linked to the charisma or influence of the program personnel. As with the independent center, involvement is voluntary, and the emphasis is usually away from institutional goals and toward the perceived needs of either the clients or the program leaders. Although the center is subject to some degree of institutional pressure, the ability to remain autonomous is its distinguishing factor.

3. THE PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATION TEACHING CENTER

There appear to be two kinds of professional organization centers emerging: the "negotiated" teacher association center and the "subject area," e.g., social studies, center. The former emerges from the formal bargaining procedures with a school system, while the latter usually comes out of the concerns of a particular subject-focused organization and shares many features with the independent center. Although both are rare in American education, the negotiated center tends to focus on professional as well as educational problems, while the subject center usually emphasizes a particular high-priority classroom subject. In either case, the related professional organization is the dominant force in the governance structure.

4. THE SINGLE UNIT TEACHING CENTER

Probably the most common type of American center, the single unit teaching center is characterized by its association with and administration by a single educational institution. Although difficult to distinguish from conventional in-service programs, the center typically has a high level of organization, more sophisticated program development, and more thoroughly developed institutional goals. A low level of parity exists, with accountability being

the exclusive province of the institutional administration. External resources and funds are often used, but they are always institutionally administered. Program development in this type of center is closely tied to approved institutional goals.

5. THE FREE PARTNERSHIP TEACHING CENTER

This type of center represents the simplest form of those based on the concept of a consortium. Usually, the partnership involves a school system and a university or college. It could, however, involve two school systems, two universities, or even a non-educational agency. The popularity of the partnership suggests that a two-party relationship is easier to initiate and maintain than a consortium involving three or more discrete institutions. The word free refers to the fact that the partnership is entered into willingly, rather than being prescribed legislatively or politically. Program development will show evidence of attempting to accommodate the needs and goals of both partners. This type of center often evolves from a single unit center in which a good relationship develops between the sponsoring unit and consultants from other nearby educational institutions.

6. THE FREE CONSORTIUM TEACHING CENTER

Characterized by three or more institutions willingly entering into a teaching center relationship, organization, commitments, and policy considerations will usually be more complex and formal than in a partnership. Financial arrangements are also more complex, with external sources of support frequently being the primary reason for creating a consortium. Program development tends to be more general, as the goals and constraints of each party must be taken into account. The permanence of this type of center is often related to the ability of member institutions and their constituencies to see merit in the programs. "First phase" development usually takes much longer than with most other center types because of the need for building trust among a complex mix of participants, but the long range payoff and potential large-scale impact often make the early spider dances worthwhile.

7. THE LEGISLATIVE/POLITICAL CONSORTIUM TEACHING CENTER

This type of center is characterized by the fact that its organization and constituency is prescribed either by legislative mandate or by political influence. Often, but not always, the state department of education oversees the process. In a sense, it is a "forced" consortium. Although participation by eligible institutions tends to be quite varied, it is not unusual for a financial incentive to exist as an enticement. A rather complex communication system is frequently used to assist the administering agency in program development. Although this type of center is frequently organized with regard to county boundaries, the organization may range from sub-county to a total state model. (In some cases, the responsibility for "in-service education days" is moved from the school system to the center. In several states it has also been proposed that this type of center should become the institution which recommends candidates for professional teaching certificates.)

Probably no individual teaching center is organized as "purely" as this typology implies. However, if one analyzes the teaching center programs currently in existence, there is strong likelihood that a dominant organizational pattern will emerge that forms a reasonable "fit" with one of the described types. Secondary organizational characteristics are also likely to exist because of the complexity of American education. The important point is to discover the significant structural characteristics of a teaching center so that their relationship to its function can be better understood.

*Schmieder, Allen A. and Yarger, Samuel J., "Teacher/Teaching Centering in America," The Journal of Teacher Education, Spring, 1974, pp. 5-12.

SELECTED DEFINITIONS OF A TEACHEREDUCATION CENTERDefinition by Schmieder and Yarger:

1. A place, in situ or in changing locations, which develops programs for the training and improvement of educational personnel (in-service teachers, preservice teachers, administrators, para-professionals, college teachers, etc.) in which the participating personnel have an opportunity to share successes, to utilize a wide range of education resources, and to receive training specifically related to their most pressing teaching problems.

Definition by State Teacher Education Center Council of Florida

2. The teacher education center is an organized arrangement to promote collaboration in teacher education, both preservice and in-service. It involves teachers, school districts, and teacher education institutions. It draws its resources from existing teacher education programs and does not replace the institutions which provide these programs. It is especially concerned with those aspects of teacher education requiring mutual involvement of concerned institutions.

Definition contained in the Leon County TEC Proposal

3. The teacher education center is a facilitating agency to effect programs of education and research relating to the specific needs of professional personnel (teachers, administrators, supervisors, college professors, teacher candidates, and para-professionals) in a field-based setting in which the participating agencies (teacher organizations, school districts, and teacher education institutions) and their respective personnel collaboratively utilize a wide range of educational resources.

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BRAINSTORMING: Essential Elements

Essentially a structured situation when verbal ideas are drawn out from those participating in order to obtain the greatest number of suggestions in the shortest period of time, concerning a given problem.

There are four basic rules that structure a "brainstorming" session.

1. The aim is quantity. The more ideas the better.
2. There must be an atmosphere that every idea is worthwhile and valuable.
3. There must be complete freedom of expression, no matter how far out ideas may seem.
4. As an idea is voiced, it may be developed or supplemented by another person with a goal of seeking various combinations and improvements of each idea.

It is suggested that the "brainstormed" ideas be listed visibly to all the group, i.e. on a blackboard, easel, etc.

GENERAL APPENDIX

THE BUZZ SESSION

The "buzz session" is a means of encouraging people to be more active in a discussion.

1. Structure of the group:

- a. Five to eight participants in each group.
- b. The group should be arranged in a circle, semi-circle, or around a table.
- c. Each group should be situated separately from another.
- d. The group leaders (a leader and a recorder) may be assigned, selected by the group, or emergent leadership may be encouraged.

2. Instructions that should be given to each group:

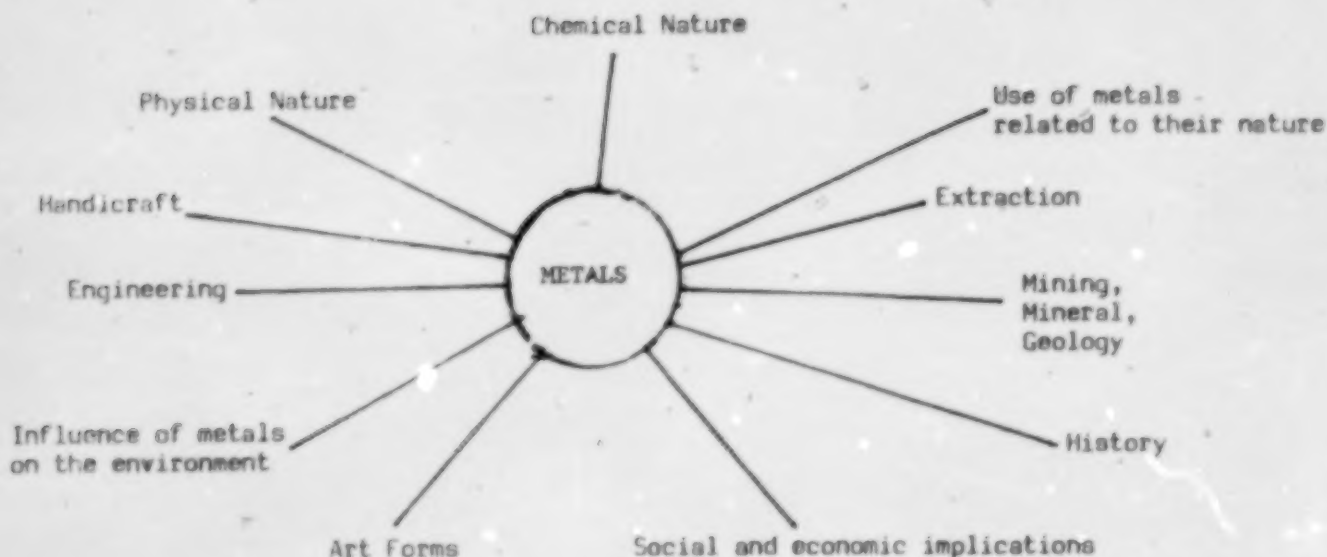
- a. Information concerning the problem or problems they are to attempted to resolve.
- b. The length of time they will have in which to interact.
- c. What is expected of them before they return to the larger group.
- d. What is expected of them when they return to the larger group.

FLOW CHARTING

This is a diagramming technique to show the progress or growth of an idea or activity. It can be done individually or in a small group.

Some basic rules to aid flow charting:

1. List the main topic in bold letters in the center of the paper.
2. By using arrows, show the direction of thought.
3. The object is to let the relationships between ideas "flow" freely. Any refinement of the original diagram can be done later.
4. Below is a sample example of flow charting (from Metals: Background Information, A Unit For Teachers published for the Schools Council by MacDonald Educational, London, 1973).



GENERAL APPENDIX

CONTEMPORARY RURAL AMERICA AND ITS EDUCATION: A PICTURE OF NEGLECT¹

RURAL AMERICA

The problems related to rural education are difficult to characterize because of the diversity found in rural America. Rural poverty is not always the root of the problems, because rural areas are not uniformly backward and economically deprived. The problems cannot be related exclusively to racial and cultural differences, despite a significant rural population of Indians, Chicanos, southern blacks, and low-income Caucasians. Nor are the rural residents' ideologies, attitudes, and orientation toward change and education uniformly different from the rest of society. Given such diversity, how is one to characterize the rural environment and related problems? Furthermore, what are the characteristics of rural schools?

First, and perhaps most significantly, rural can be characterized by the setting in which it occurs, i.e., it takes place in villages, towns, and surrounding countrysides which have small and/or dispersed populations, absence or deficiency of many public facilities and services, relatively weak governmental structures, a scarcity of local leadership and expertise, little local control over media, and a conservative attitude about change.²

1. Excerpted by Chester Hausken from the Introduction to Rural Education Program: Basic Program Plans (Portland, Oregon: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, April, 1972.)

2. President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty, The People Left Behind (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1976).

Secondly, job opportunities in rural areas are, at best, scarce. While some persons are able to commute to nonrural jobs, many families have had to leave their rural residence to find employment. In addition, most graduates of rural schools must go elsewhere for education and job opportunities.³

A third major factor is that many of the major decisions which affect rural communities are made beyond the village or county boundaries by agencies whose policies and procedures are developed on a regional, state, or national level, but whose programs have penetrated rural communities. Even when one or more local individuals control some of the power, change is slow to occur. The usual overlap in life spaces within a small community generates pressure to remain within the economic and social norms created by everyone knowing everyone else. This, too, often results in acquiescence to the wishes of a few powerful persons.⁴

Thus, the problems of rural education derive their uniqueness from the characteristics of the environment in which it operates. Another set of characteristics, related specifically to education, clearly differentiates rural education from nonrural education.

- * School enrollments are small.
- * Student backgrounds, interests, and abilities are widely diverse.
- * Curriculum alternatives in the schools are limited.
- * Career development opportunities within the schools and communities are narrow.
- * The most readily available learning resources are related to agriculture, mining, and lumbering and the out-of-doors.

3. Ibid.

4. Larry W. Hughes and Dolphus L. Spence, "Attitudes and Orientations of Rural Groups and Effects on Educational Decision-Making and Innovation in Rural School Districts" (Las Cruces, New Mexico: New Mexico State University, July, 1971).

- The life space of students, educators, and citizens has considerable and frequent overlap.
- The school system is limited in size of staff, support services, student enrollment, and the total budget, even though it is often large in geographical size.
- The school system is a relatively insignificant and often ignored subsection of a much larger educational decision-making system that includes intermediate districts, state education agencies, and the U.S. Office of Education.
- Citizens, educators, and students have little opportunity and few channels for influencing the school's curriculum policies, instructional practice, and operating procedures.

Operating within these problems and limitations, and without adequate resources or training to capitalize upon the potential strengths of smallness, large numbers of rural students have received and are now receiving an ineffective and inappropriate education.

Following is a description of the rural setting and an analysis of existing conditions affecting rural education. Subsequent sections of this publication contain proposed models to move one aspect of rural education, inservice teacher education, from where it is toward where it has the potential to be.

THE RURAL SETTING

More than one of every four Americans - 2.65 percent, or 54 million - lived in rural areas in 1970.⁵ This reason alone warrants national concern for educational deficiencies in rural areas.

5. U.S. Bureau of the Census, Report on General Social and Economic Characteristics, 1970 Census of Population (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1971).

However, rural students are rarely perceived as comprising a significant target for improvement efforts. Some educators even proclaim that a rural education problem just does not exist. Denial of the problem is partly the result of consolidation and the decline of in farm population, which have eliminated the one-room school and made high school education available. Despite the well publicized decline in population, recent statistics show that rural America should not - and literally cannot - be ignored.

Although declining, its total population still exceeds the combined population of America's 100 largest cities. It is large enough so that rural America may be classified as the world's ninth largest country (only China, India, U.S.S.R., U.S., Japan, Indonesia, Pakistan and Brazil have total populations that exceed the rural population in the U.S.). No country in Europe, and only one in Latin America (Brazil) has a total population that exceeds the size of America's rural population.⁶

How dispersed is the rural population?

The accepted minimum measurement of an urban environment is a population density of 1,000 or more per square mile. The measure of suburbanization is a population of 500 per square mile. Approximately one-third of the states, 17 to be exact, do not contain a single county with a population density of 500 persons per square mile. Twenty-three states have a population density of less than 50 persons per square mile, and 37 states have a density of less than 100 persons per square mile.⁷

What is the meaning of, and, significance of "rural"?

Rural, furthermore, means an important segment of our nation's population - one third. It is a segment that is not decreasing in proportionate size, despite the alleged urbanization of our society. It is a segment that tends to be overlooked in these times of preoccupation with urban crises.

6. Gordon Swanson, "The Myth of Urbanism", Rural Education News, 22, March, 1970.

7. Ibid.

Although solving urban problems in our country should have top priority, the severity and magnitude of similar problems in the development of human resources and in the provision of basic services and facilities are no less important in rural areas. The importance is for rural living itself, not just because rural areas contribute so many undereducated, unskilled migrants to urban areas.

Rural means people. It includes farmers, but it also includes men and women following every occupation known who choose to live beyond the city limits in housing subdivisions, in towns, and in the open country. It means people with a strong desire for privacy, living space and self-reliance. It means people with a pride in home and family. It means people looking for opportunity who have left the country for the city. Rural means America, our history and much of our dreams.

Thus, the rural America distinction is important because it represents so much of what America has been as well as what it hopes to be. Rural means life at a scale that is comprehensive to the individual. It is important that we preserve and strengthen this option.⁸

Students in rural schools have many similarities to their urban counterparts, but they also maintain important differences. Kuvlesky⁹ suggests that rural and urban youth alike tend to be imbued with the success ethic. Generally, they want more than their parents in social rank, material possessions, and life chances. They usually want to abandon the rural scene and take up residence in the cities to seek higher status jobs than those held by their parents. To make these gains, they realize that high school education and, perhaps, additional education are imperative.

8. Ibid.

9. William P. Kuvlesky, "Rural Youth: Current Status and Prognosis," Youth in Contemporary Society, 1972.

The student population in most rural schools is more heterogeneous in background, attitude, values, and aspiration levels than urban students. Sitting next to each other in a classroom may be the sons of both wealthy farmers and the day laborers they employ. Cultural and social differences are added to the economic ones when a mixture of races is present. Rural students have been traditionally more socially and politically conservative, although this distinction is lessening. They also have more often chosen vocational training for any post-high school work.

While rural youth spend less time in school - legitimately or otherwise - and more often drop out of school than urban students, they also spend more time in working at jobs during the regular academic year and vacation time. According to Polk¹⁰, rural teenagers are more often charged with committing acts of "general misconduct" than with "serious offenses." Nonetheless, they run a greater risk of being subjected to adult jurisprudential treatment and going to jail with adult criminals. They tend to compare less favorably with urban students on characteristics such as self-image, self-assurance, self-adjustment, personality adjustment, and level of anxiety. Burchinal¹¹ argues that the greatest problem faced by rural youth as they seek their primary goals is attributable to their circumstances of disadvantage and the resulting dislocations in terms of personality, social relations, and underdeveloped abilities. The environment

10. K. Polk. "An Exploration of Rural Juvenile Delinquency", Rural Youth In Crises: Facts, Myths, and Social Change, ed. Lee G. Burchinal (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, 1965).

11. Lee C. Burchinal, Rural Youth In Crises: Facts, Myths, and Social Change, ed. Lee G. Burchinal (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, 1965).

of the rural school and community is seen as too stringent, too structured, and too narrowly focused to allow a widely diverse student body to develop its broad range of individual talents, abilities, and aspirations.

THE PRESENT CONDITIONS

Since rural students frequently depend upon those educational opportunities available to them in local schools for their total exposure to formal learning, it is doubly important to make this experience effective and appropriate. The potential strengths and advantages of the rural environment must be capitalized upon if school systems hope to turn limitations to assets. Small schools, sparse population density, and remoteness from urban pressures must be valued, not vilified, for rural education can incubate clarity, perspective, and humane concern.

Institutional inertia has persisted, however, and resistance to change continues as a pervading characteristic of the American educational system, not alone in rural schools. A study by the Stanford Research Institute¹² states, "One of the most crucial problems which confronts the field of education today is that of translating research results into practice." Despite recent infusion of federal money, there is ample evidence that a gap between what is known and what is done in education does exist, and the gap does not appear to be narrowing.

12. M. H. Chorress and others, Decision Process and Information Needs in Education: A Field Survey (Menlo Park, Calif.: Stanford Research Institute, 1969).

Studies indicate a considerable time lag between research and classroom application. A congressional subcommittee recently found that it takes 30 years before an innovation in education has widespread adoption and 10 to 15 years for even the first 3 percent of the schools to make significant changes.¹³ At the same time, innovations in medicine are usually adopted in about 2 years. Goodland, Cunningham, Brickell, and Goldhammer¹⁴ have all developed the thesis that change in our schools comes very slowly, even reluctantly, and at a very uneven rate. Even in those schools reputed to have new and innovative programs, closer examination reveals that many changes are more publicized than real. Goodland has pointed out that despite outward signs, major changes in what happens between the teacher and student are almost nonexistent.

The gap between what we do and what we know how to do seems even more pronounced and critical in small, rural schools than it does in the educational system as a whole. Several studies have pointed out the fact that rural schools generally are less adaptable and less responsive to change than other schools.¹⁵ A national survey of accredited high schools recently found that small schools and rural schools were less secure with innovation and more hesitant to change than their larger and better-equipped counterparts.¹⁶

13. "Electric Company's Parks Reading Gains," Education Daily, February 18, 1972.

14. Edgar L. Morphet and David J. Lesser, eds., Designing Education for the Future, No. 4 (New York, Citation Press, 1968).

15. Everett M. Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations (New York: Free Press, 1962).

16. Gordon and Cawelti, "Innovative Practices in High Schools: Who Does What and Why -- and How," Nation's Schools 79, April, 1967.

As a result of this inability to launch a much-needed rural educational renaissance, the children and youth of rural America are not receiving the quality of education that is their legacy. The President's National Advisory Committee on Rural Poverty reported

Rural adults and youth are the product of an educational system that has historically short-changed rural people. The extent to which rural people have been denied equality of educational opportunity is evident from both the products of the education and the resources that go into the system. On both counts the quality of rural education ranks low.¹⁷

The problem becomes more clear as we examine it in each of four different contexts: at the level of community participation, at the level of the school as an institution, at the level of the learning environment, and at the level of services provided by regional or state support agencies.

We could look at the conditions that frequently prevail in the rural community and at some of the factors that affect citizen participation, the school as an institution, the learning environment, or the support agency services. The intent of this publication is more related to the latter, so a brief description of some of these factors appears appropriate.

SUPPORT AGENCY SERVICES

Rural school systems rarely get the help they need to initiate and implement planned innovations that solve critical and local educational problems.

17. President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty, 1967.

Because rural school systems are small, they lack the capability of engaging in sophisticated planning, curriculum development, and staff training. Unlike their large urban counterparts, rural districts are not self-contained. They must rely upon outside agencies or their own cooperative alliances to secure many of the services needed to support local development.

The help that agencies such as state education agencies, intermediate districts, and teacher training institutions, have been providing rural school districts has been insufficient, duplicated, or overly prescriptive and in many instances inappropriate to the size and unique characteristics of the local system's needs.¹⁸ For example, inservice training for rural teachers and administrators mostly consists of preprogrammed college courses; since a minimum number of enrollees is required to make the course economically feasible, many of those persuaded to take a particular course have no pressing need for its substance. Also, universities and colleges are generally charged with the responsibility for recruiting and training potential teacher candidates. They have the added responsibility for either directly accrediting their graduates or recommending that the state do so instead. By defining the criteria for admittance to teacher education programs and by determining what training experiences and competencies are required for certification, the universities and colleges handicap rural school systems in their approach to change by maintaining a monopolistic control over both the population that is authorized to teach young people and the ideas they bring with them into the classroom.

18. Edgar L. Morphet and David J. Jesser, eds., Emerging State Responsibilities for Education (Denver, Colo.: Improving State Leadership in Education, 1971).

State agencies have been handicapped in providing leadership and services to rural districts by their traditional regulatory inspection role. Special attention to rural districts has been required because these small districts have difficulty meeting even the minimum teacher certification, building code, and course offering standards espoused by state agencies. Further, because rural districts generally have no curriculum specialists on their staffs, state agency curriculum and instruction specialists are unable to perform as consultants. State specialists are expected to, and often act as though they do, have the answers to how teachers and administrators "ought" to behave and what the school program "ought" to be like.¹⁹ Such prescription not only negates the phenomenon of constant change, it also seriously impedes the process.

Intermediate districts, as they have been formed in more and more rural areas each year, have tended to fall into one of two patterns: they either function as regional extensions of the state education agencies or as cooperatives of a cluster of local school systems. In either event, their "new" rural education agencies have not moved in the direction of providing the kind of leadership and service that would encourage and support enhanced capacity, an increased productivity, and a greater initiative at the local district level. As a result, the capability of rural school districts to remain autonomous, self-renewing strongholds of local control and initiative has clearly and continuously deteriorated.²⁰

19. Charles S. Benson and James W. Guthrie, *An Essay on Federal Incentives and Local and State Educational Initiative* (Berkley, Calif.: University of California at Berkley, 1968).

20. Robert M. Isenberg, "States Continuing to Reorganize Their Intermediate Units", Planning and Changing: A Journey for School Administrators, 2; July, 1971.

CONCLUSION

This, then, has been a review of some of the existing conditions that have tended to shortchange rural students in their education and act as deterrents to efforts to introduce educational improvements into rural communities and rural school systems. Fortunately, rural communities, rural schools, and rural people have the potential for overcoming these obstacles and capitalizing upon the inherent strengths associated with ruralness. An increasing number of rural residents - citizens, politicians and educators - are showing interest in becoming a part of a rural renaissance. What, then is the potential for improvement?